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The Potential Influence of Motivation on the Decision to Stay or Quit the Navy Delayed Entry Program: A Descriptive Analysis

Angela W. Cyrus
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THE POTENTIAL INFLUENCE OF MOTIVATION ON THE DECISION
TO STAY OR QUIT THE NAVY DELAYED ENTRY PROGRAM: A
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

by

ANGELA W. CYRUS

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of Old Dominion University
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ABSTRACT

THE POTENTIAL INFLUENCE OF MOTIVATION ON THE DECISION TO STAY OR QUIT THE NAVY DELAYED ENTRY PROGRAM: A DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

Old Dominion University 2007

Angela W. Cyrus

Director: Dr. Berhanu Mengistu

This study explored the influence of public service motivation on recruits' decisions to complete the Navy Delayed Entry Program and proceed to basic training, or to quit the program, having changed their minds about joining the Navy. The study was motivated by a problematic attrition rate, up to 25% in some instances, from the Navy Delayed Entry Program. Given the increased domestic and international demands placed on the U.S. military amidst significant political debate about the deployment of forces, military recruiting faces tough challenges in meeting its authorized personnel requirements. This study examined the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and associated job characteristic preferences of recruits who stayed in the program and those who quit.

Theoretical foundations for the study included prevailing theories of motivation to serve in the public sector. Respondents completed a survey which ranked in order of importance 15 motivation factors. Demographic data were obtained from a review of documents. Data were analyzed using descriptive and nonparametric data analyses. The findings of the study indicated there were no significant differences between the stay and quit groups on motivation preferences. The sample was found to be homogeneous and as a whole displayed motivation preferences associated with public sector employment. Demographic differences were also observed among the study group.

This work is dedicated to my mother, Catherine Wilson for a lifetime of support and encouragement. I saw you persevere to earn your college degree at age 55, and no matter what the obstacles were, you found the courage and wisdom to overcome them. I stood on your shoulders and that is the sole reason I have come this far.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

The Global War on Terror and the U.S. military's increased role in natural disaster rescue, stabilization, and reconstruction efforts around the world have strained the once robust operating forces and have increased the challenges of services to recruit the force of the future. The viability of the All Volunteer Force depends, in large measure, on the Department of Defense's (DOD) ability to successfully recruit several hundred thousand qualified individuals each year to fill more than 1,400 occupational specialties. Since the March 2003 involvement of U.S. military forces in Iraq, attracting sufficient numbers of high-quality recruits to military service has proven to be one of the greatest personnel challenges faced by DOD since the inception of the All Volunteer Force (reported in GAO-06-846, August 2006). DOD relies on four active components—the Army, Navy, Air Force and Marines—and four reserve and two National Guard components—the Army National Guard, Army Reserve, Navy Reserve, Marine Corps Reserve, Air National Guard, and Air Force Reserve—to meet its mission. Each year, Congress mandates the services' end strengths. The National Defense Authorization Act establishes personnel levels for each component and in fiscal year 2005, the Act authorized the Secretary of Defense to increase the authorized end strengths of the active Army and active Marine Corps by an additional 10,000 and 6,000 respectively, to support the operations in Iraq and Afghanistan. Meeting these authorization requirements is a function of recruiting and retention. In fiscal year 2006, DOD committed over \$1.5

billion to its recruiting effort alone and each service has established a recruiting command responsible that services' recruiting mission and functions.

The increased demands for military manpower have garnered significant political attention and many members of Congress have expressed considerable interest in DOD's ability to recruit and retain sufficient numbers of service members with the required skills and experience to accomplish its multiple missions (reported in GAO-05-419T, 2005). While the services generally met their aggregate recruiting and retention goals in fiscal years 2000 through 2004, they faced greater recruiting difficulties in fiscal year 2005, and several factors suggested they will continue to be challenged in meeting future recruiting and retention goals. With respect to recruiting, most services met their aggregate recruiting goals for fiscal years 2000 through 2004. However in fiscal year 2005, the Army missed its recruiting goal by about eight percent. In terms of retention, the Navy experienced aggregate shortages by about eight percent, and all of the active components experienced shortfalls in the number of new recruits in their Delayed Entry Programs, which suggested that they will likely experience difficulties in meeting their aggregate recruiting and retention goals in the future (reported in GAO-06-134, 2005).

The Delayed Entry Program is viewed as a depository for future soldiers, sailors, and airmen. When prospects sign their contracts, they enter into a pool of applicants awaiting the date they are to report to basic training. While in the Delayed Entry Program, the recruits are the responsibility of the recruiter and are taught basic military protocols and procedures, such as saluting and rank recognition. Recruits generally spend no more than one year in the program and no less than ten days. As reported in GAO-06-134, "...a healthy Delayed Entry Program is imperative to a successful

recruiting year. If they fall short of their Delayed Entry Program goals, the components have to make up shortfalls by sending individuals to basic training early and replacing the loss in the program” p. 14. In past years, the Army achieved its accession goal by advancing the departure dates for recruits in its Delayed Entry Program.

The current research considers recruiting efforts within U.S. Navy; specifically, the Delayed Entry Program of one of its recruiting districts. In 2003, the Chief of Naval Operations in his CNO Guidance paper placed top priority on building a naval workforce for the 21st century. He provided the following guidance to recruiting personnel:

With advances in the technology of weapons systems and platforms requiring personnel with highly specialized knowledge of computers and engineering, Navy recruiters must target the top of the talent pool. Those who join and are subsequently trained to further develop their skills become increasingly valuable and are difficult to replace. Monetary incentives to recruit and retain are important, but not sufficient. Effective leadership and the sense that one is engaged in a noble, rewarding profession are even more important in motivating talented people to serve the Nation. (p. 5)

Indeed, the Chief of Naval Operations understood that individuals who serve their country are motivated not only by external rewards, but also by what James Perry (1996) refers to as “...a calling, a sense of duty, rather than a job” (p. 5) that resides within them. The current research, in the context of job characteristics theory (Hackman and Oldham, 1980), explores motivation factors, both internal and external to the new recruit which may influence his or her decision to join the Navy. Early organizational theorists such as

Abraham Maslow (1954) and Frederick Herzberg (1968) agreed that job satisfaction is caused by an individual's desires to fulfill personal needs, which include intrinsic and extrinsic needs. The U.S. Navy and other active services have primarily relied on extrinsic rewards to aid in its recruiting efforts. Incentive pay, the promise of education, and retirement benefits have been effective for decades in convincing individuals to join and remain in the military. However, Perry (1990) defines public service motivation as "...an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations" (p 368). This study examines whether or not a predisposition is evident in the motives of the recruits who participated. Sector employment choice theory (Wright, 2001) considers individual needs and rewards preferences together as they have a common focus on the desirability of work related opportunities and outcomes as characteristics of the employee. Although research generally suggested that employees in the private sector differ from employees in the public sector, Wright notes inconsistencies in the findings. The current research sought to discern motivation differences between recruits who stayed in the Delayed Entry Program—likened to public servants, and those who quit—likened to private sector employees.

This chapter presents background on the enlisted military recruiting, the research problem and overarching question, the purpose of the study, its theoretical framework, methodology, significance of the research, limitations of the study, and the organization of subsequent chapters.

Background

The Department of Defense must recruit and retain hundreds of thousands of service members each year to carry out its missions, including providing support in connection with events such as Hurricanes Katrina and Rita. In addition to meeting legislatively mandated aggregate personnel levels, each military component must also meet its authorized personnel requirements for each occupational specialty. Recruitment of high-quality personnel is a tough proposition, made even more challenging in the current environment when the nation is engaged in combat operations. To exacerbate the recruitment challenges further, the Department of Defense estimates that over half of the youth in the U.S. population between the ages of 16 and 21 do not meet the minimum requirements to enter military service (reported in GAO-06-846, Report to Congress, 2006). Department of Defense establishes the educational, aptitude, medical and moral character standards for entry into the military, as well as other standards such as those for age, citizenship, and number of dependent children. Additionally individual service components establish standards for various occupational specialties. Many youth are ineligible because they cannot meet DOD or service standards for education, as indicated by a preference for at least a high school diploma; mental aptitude, as indicated by receipt of an acceptable score on the Armed Forces Qualification Test; physical fitness, as indicated by the absence of certain medical conditions and the ability to perform the physical challenges of military training; and moral character, as indicated by few or no criminal convictions or antisocial behavior (National Research Council, 2003). When an applicant decides to join the military, and is deemed qualified, he or she signs an

enlistment contract. Like all services, most U.S. Navy enlisted recruits do not enter military service immediately upon signing an enlistment contract. Instead, they enter into the Delayed Entry Program for a period up to 12 months, after which they depart for basic training. Only then are they legally classified as active duty service members. The Government Accounting Office (reported in GAO-06-846, Report to Congress, 2006) reported that the shrinking numbers of new recruits in the Delayed Entry Program indicate that the military services may experience continued recruiting challenges as they attempt to meet annual recruiting goals.

The Delayed Entry Program was instituted to give new recruits a broader selection of specialty and school choices, and to allow the Navy to regulate input into basic training as well as initial skills training facilities. The Delayed Entry Program allows an individual to enter the service at a later date (up to 365 days in the future) while offering the type of skill training desired. Likewise training establishments can more effectively allocate training resources. Without the Delayed Entry Program, the recruiter can only offer the enlistment and skills training that are available at that particular time.

The time recruits spend in the Delayed Entry Program varies from a few days to up to one year, depending on such factors as the availability of the recruit, availability of apprenticeship schools and the time of year. In some instances, recruits may depart for basic training within a month of signing a contract. However that allows them little time to prepare academically, physically or emotionally for the rigors of boot camp. Historically, recruits with a short period of time in the Delayed Entry Program are less likely to quit the Delayed Entry Program, but are more likely to be discharged from boot camp than those with a few months or more in the program. Conversely, some recruits

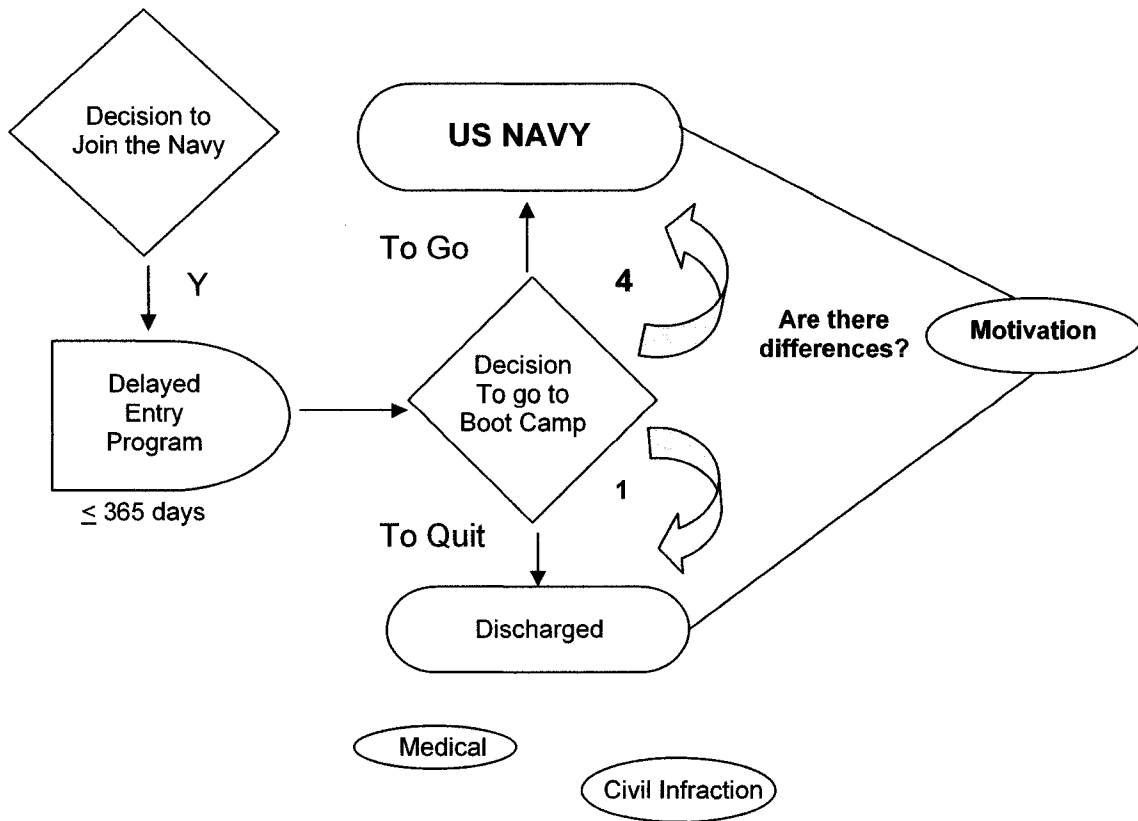
may spend as long as a year in the program, which allows them ample time to prepare, but also to explore other opportunities, such as college or employment. These recruits require frequent interaction with their recruiter to maintain interest in the Navy. Recruits with a long time in the program, six to nine months, are more likely to quit (Questor and Murray, 1985).

Problem Statement

The term *recruiting* refers to the military services' ability to bring new members into the military to carry out mission-essential tasks in the near term and to begin creating a sufficient pool of entry-level service members to develop into future midlevel and upper-level leaders. To accomplish this task, each service sets goals for new recruits who will enter basic training each year. Unfortunately, even with financial enticements, the promise of skills training and significant fringe benefits, some individuals join the military, but quit prior to departing for basic training. Over the past five years, more than 20 percent of the individuals who joined the Navy and entered the Delayed Entry Program quit prior to departing for basic training. Some individuals are forced to quit because of medical issues or civilian infractions. Others volunteer to quit. The result is same. In order to meet authorized personnel levels established in the annual National Defense Authorization Act, recruiters must replace every one of those losses. This problem is depicted in Figure 1. For two decades researchers have largely described the problem of attrition from active duty military ranks and the Delayed Entry Program in terms of the mechanics of the recruiting process itself (Questor and Murray, 1985; Kearn and Nelson, 1990; Nikada, 1994; Golfen and Shuford, 2002) and the recruiters (GAO

Report to Congress, 2005 and 2006). Empirical studies related to the predisposition and motivation of the applicants themselves are lacking. However, with the surge of motivation studies emerging in the public service arena (Khojasteh, 1993; Perry, 1996; Crewson, 1997; Gabris and Simo, 1995; Jurkiewicz, Massey and Brown, 1998; Wright, 2001; Jurkiewicz, 2002; Bruelens and Broek, 2006; and Wright, 2006), that arose out of Robert Behn's call for motivation studies in the public sector, there is a unique opportunity and stringent theoretical basis for assessing the motivation of individuals choosing to join the military service. A research gap in the growing empirical work on motivation in the public sector exists in its application to the military, which resides at an extreme of public service.

Figure 1: Research Problem Flowchart



Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore whether or not the motivation of individual recruits influenced their decisions to honor their commitment to military service by staying to complete the Delayed Entry Program or to change their minds about joining and quitting the program. The study examined the interactive relationship between the recruits' decision to stay or quit, and 15 motivation factors. It analyzed differences in the motivation preferences of individuals who stayed and quit the program. The study also analyzed the influence that gender and educational backgrounds may have had on the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program. This research took place within the geographical footprint of Navy Recruiting District Philadelphia, which included 52 recruiting stations located in Washington D.C. and six states along the East Coast of the U.S. The research question that provided the framework for the direction and design of this study was as follows:

Does the motivation of recruits influence their decision to stay or quit the Navy Delayed Entry Program?

Trends that emerged from the data were intended for review by the Navy Recruiting District in Philadelphia and the possible reform of policies and practices related to recruiting individuals for service in the Navy. This study could provide insight into the motivation of recruits who stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program. Further, this study could provide insight into the motivation of individuals by gender, race and educational background. It can potentially help to shape and target specific recruiting actions that may be effective in one or more of the various groups considered.

Theoretical Framework

This study is grounded in the interaction of four theories of motivation: public service motivation theory (Perry, 1996), expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), job characteristics theory (Hackman and Oldham, 1980), and sector employment choice theory (Wright, 2001). Recognizing the dimensions of motivation, the theoretical framework used in this study relies on the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory and Wright's (2001) sector choice theory have elements of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and provide linkage to both public service motivation theory and job characteristics theory.

This research first invokes Vroom's expectancy theory (1964), which has as its premise that motivation depends on how much an individual wants something relative to other things, and that the probability of getting it matches the perceived effort required to obtain it. This theory also recognizes that there is no single universal principle for explaining everyone's motivations, and that the expected outcomes are positive, negative, or neutral. The applicability of these notions to public sector employees is well documented (Gabris and Simo, 1995). As such, this study further relies on Perry's (1996), public service motivation theory to begin to assess an individual's desire to perform public service. The public sector has been portrayed as "...a calling, a sense of duty, rather than a job" (Perry 1996, p. 5). Public administrators are characterized by an ethic to serve the public, patriotism and self-sacrifice. Hence they are motivated by different job characteristics than are private-sector employees (Staats 1988). More broadly, public service motivation can be characterized as a reliance on intrinsic rewards over extrinsic rewards (Crewson 1997). A third component of this study's theoretical

foundation comes from Wright's (2001) research on the determinants of work motivation in the public sector. He classified two major streams of thought: one that focuses on employee characteristics and the other that focuses on the organizational environment. This research employs his research on employee characteristics to weave the intrinsic motivation thread and his second aspect of sector choice theory, organizational environment, which manifests extrinsic motivation. Two characteristics of the environment have been suggested to influence work motivation: job characteristics and work context. Job characteristics describe aspects of the job or task an employee performs, while the work context pertains to characteristics of the organizational setting in which the employee must perform the work, and herein lies the final theoretical linkage for this study. Job characteristics theory (Hackman and Oldham, 1980) provided the general test bed against which public service motives were tested in this study. Early organizational theorists such as Abraham Maslow (1954) and Frederick Herzberg (1968) stated that job satisfaction is caused by individuals' desires to fulfill personal needs, which include intrinsic and extrinsic needs. Job characteristics theory (Hackman and Oldham, 1980) is composed of five core job characteristics (autonomy, task identification, task significance, variety, and feedback) which are essential to engage an individual's higher order needs and captured in the survey instrument used in the current research.

Methodology

The primary purpose and value of this explorative study was to learn more about the potential influence of motivation on new recruits' decisions to honor their commitments to military service by completing the Navy Delayed Entry program or to change their minds and quit. In particular, this study considered the new recruits, a non-probability sample, in the Delayed Entry Program within the geographical footprint of Navy Recruiting District Philadelphia, PA. While the study was intended to add to the cumulative body of knowledge about the relationship between motivation and the decision to serve one's country, it was not intended to be generalized to Delayed Entry Programs in other localities or to explain behavior definitively in terms of cause and effect. The study used a quantitative approach, employing a survey design to collect information. Participants were followed over the of one year, the maximum length of time a new recruit typically can remain in the Delayed Entry Program, to determine if they stayed in the program and proceeded to basic training or if they quit. Monthly attrition reports for the period May 2005 through April 2006 from Navy Recruiting District Philadelphia were examined to obtain the information about the recruits' decisions. Demographic data were obtained from the Navy's Personalized Recruiting for Immediate and Delayed Entry (PRIDE) data system.

Significance of the Study

Robert Behn (1985) urged scholars to focus their research on the big questions in public management. One of the most important of these questions concerned motivation. Specifically, he argued that the field needed to learn how public managers can motivate public employees and citizens to pursue important public purposes with intelligence and energy. His observation was not unique, however. Perry and Porter (1982, 97) noted twenty years ago that the literature on motivation tends to concentrate too heavily on employees within industrial and business organizations. Bradley Wright (2001) agreed that work motivation had failed to attract similar interest among public sector scholars. Perry and Porter proposed a research agenda to improve the understanding of the motivational context in public-sector organizations. Public sector organizations are under constant pressure to improve their productivity and to reduce their costs and he believed this lack of attention was surprising. A better understanding of work motivation is essential to any efforts to describe, defend or improve the efficiency and effectiveness of public organizations. Perry (1995) attempted to fill this gap with public service motivation theory. So far this theory has been limited in its application to civilians who are already working in the public sector. Little research addresses the motivation of potential employees prior to entering the public sector, and building on the patriotic and self-sacrifice component of Wright's theory, this study extends the view into the uniformed services. This research is significant, not only for its potential contribution to the Navy's recruitment goal, but because it may also reduce the knowledge gap regarding the motivation of individuals who choose military service.

Furthermore, this research is important and timely because the national debate on the involvement of the United States in the wars in Afghanistan and Iraq gave rise to new difficulties in military recruiting. In order to meet national and international objectives for the military force, adequate manning levels must be achieved and sustained. A reduced military force in the United States jeopardizes national security, international peacekeeping operations, and necessary humanitarian efforts around the world. When individuals are recruited and enter the Delayed Entry Program, it is important to capitalize on their initial commitment and ensure they report to basic training. When people change their minds about serving in the military and decide to quit the program, the recruiting costs escalate increases in terms of replacement and opportunity.

Limitations

The participants represented a convenience sample. While 1054 surveys were initially distributed, in the final analysis, only 288 were useable for the study and were not representative of the population. More than Eighty-five percent of the sample stayed to complete the Delayed Entry Program. With only 15 percent in the group that quit, the results largely reflect characteristics of the group who stayed, limiting the ability to significantly compare groups. The study would have been strengthened by using a random sample and by having a comparison group who never made the decision to join the Navy, and thus enter the Delayed Entry Program. However, data collection and access to participants precluded such a design. External validity, and thus the ability to generalize beyond this group, is threatened by the lack of random sample. This study did not account for the historical influence of the Global War on Terror. While the

Department of Defense (reported in GAO-05-952, August, 2005) found that the public's perception about military enlistment has changed and that youth and their parents believe that deployment to a hostile environment is very likely for some types of service members, that phenomenon is not captured in this current research. The subjects of this study had already decided to join the Navy and had acted upon that decision by entering the Delayed Entry Program. This study considered the subsequent decision to quit or stay. Additionally, while the influence of recruiters can not be negated, it was noted that they are subjected to standard training which serves to mitigate that influence. Individual differences and behaviors of recruiters are not under study.

Subsequent Chapters

This study follows an exploratory research plan of mixed methods. Chapter one provided a brief overview of military recruitment, introduced the research problem and question and purpose of the study. Chapter one also summarized the methodology, as well as the significance and limitations of the study.

Chapter Two presents the theoretical foundation for this research in a literature review. It expounds upon theories of expectancy, public service motivation, sector choice employment, and job characteristics. It also presents a compilation of previous studies performed in the area of Delayed Entry Program attrition.

Chapter Three details the methodology of the study. It discusses the survey instrument, the selection of sample and statistical methods employed to analyze data.

Chapter Four presents a detailed analysis of the results of the data collection and the descriptive analysis of the study. Cross-tabulations were used to describe

relationships between dependent and independent variables. Chapter Five concludes this research with an overview of the results. It presents implications of the study and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

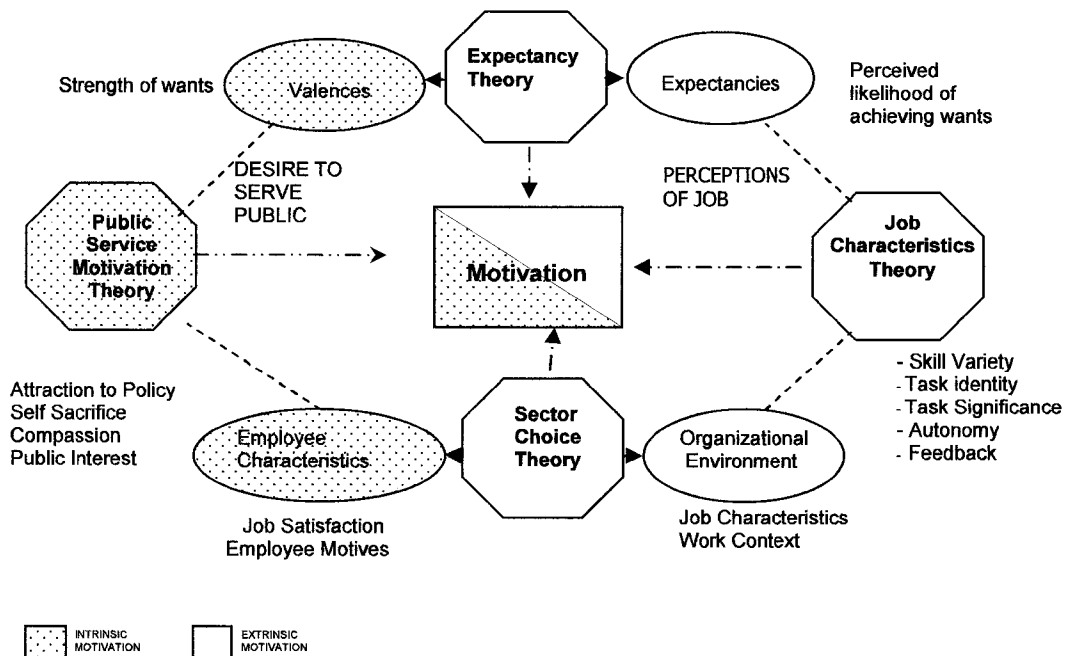
This study is based on the interaction of four theories of motivation: public service motivation theory (Perry, 1996), expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), job characteristics theory (Hackman and Oldham, 1980), and sector employment choice theory (Wright, 2001). It is an attempt to discern differences between the motivation of new recruits who stay in the Navy Delayed Entry Program and those who quit the program.

Motivation Theories

The theoretical framework is rooted in the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is based on a person's desire to fulfill individual inner psychological needs such as self-fulfillment, competence and self-determination (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Intrinsic motivation is facilitated by enhancing one's sense of self-fulfillment. Where there is significant control of the person and his or her work, intrinsic motivation is decreased. If the informational or feedback aspect is significant and positive, intrinsic motivation is increased. An example of this is when the supervisor provides a choice of what the employee can work on or what order to perform assigned tasks. Enhancing a sense of accomplishment through the use of positive feedback fosters intrinsic motivation. The theoretical model in Figure 2 displays the intrinsic aspects of motivation on the left side in the shaded areas. Items on the right side of the model (Figure 2A) depict extrinsic rewards, which are enhancements or motivation beyond an individual's control. Money is the most often cited extrinsic motivator.

Extrinsic motivators have an aspect which serves to control individuals as well as inform them (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Expectancy theory and sector choice theory have elements of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, which are pertinent to this model.

First, expectancy theory, which is one of the most widely accepted explanations of motivation, has as its premise that motivation depends on how much an individual wants something (the strength of the valence) relative to other things, and the perceived effort-reward probability (expectancy) that he or she will get it. Expectancy theory formulations have distinguished between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, but have viewed the two as additive (Miner, 2005). Expectancy theory also recognizes that there is no single universal principle for explaining everyone's motivations, and that the expected outcomes are positive, negative, or neutral. The applicability of these notions to public sector employees is well documented (Gabris and Simo, 1995). Figure 2A depicts a relationship between expectancy theory and public service motivation theory when the valence in question is a strong desire to serve the public.

Figure 2A: Theoretical Model

Theories of Public Service and Motivation

Perry's public service motivation theory (1996), which finds its roots in expectancy theory, supports the framework in which to begin to assess an individual's desire to perform public service. The public sector has been portrayed as a calling, a sense of duty, rather than a job (Perry 1996; Staats 1988). Public administrators are characterized by an ethic to serve the public; hence they are motivated by different job characteristics than are private-sector employees. In particular, workers in government organizations are seen as motivated by a concern for the community and a desire to serve the public interest. Perry (1996) offered the most complete effort to measure public service motivation. He first defined it as "...an individual's predisposition to respond to

motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations” (p 6).

Using survey data, Perry developed a measure of public service motivation that has four components: attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, compassion and self-sacrifice. More broadly, public service motivation can be characterized as a reliance on intrinsic rewards over extrinsic rewards (Crewson 1997). Intrinsic rewards are derived from the satisfaction an individual receives from performing a task.

Examples of these are a sense of accomplishment and a feeling of self-worth. In contrast, extrinsic rewards are those offered to an employee by someone else. Examples of extrinsic rewards are a pay raise, a promotion, job security and status or prestige.

Wright (2001) classified the research on the determinants of work motivation in the public sector into two major streams, one that focuses on employee characteristics and the other that focuses on the organizational environment. The intrinsic motivation thread manifests in employee characteristics. Two basic types of employee characteristics have been suggested to be determinants of work motivation: employee motives and job satisfaction. While employee motives represent what employees want or expect from their jobs, job satisfaction reflects the employees’ reaction to what they receive. The relationship between sector choice theory and public service motivation can be found when employee motives are rooted in a desire to serve the public.

The second aspect of sector choice theory, organizational environment, is based on extrinsic motivation. Two characteristics of the environment have been suggested to influence work motivation: job characteristics and work context. Job characteristics describe aspects of the job or task an employee performs, while the work context pertains to characteristics of the organizational setting in which the employee must perform the

work. In both streams of research, a prior construct has been implied – sector employment choice. Wright explains that sector employment choice deals with whether an individual joins and maintains either public or private sector employment and is critical to understanding the current public sector literature on work motivation because the very premise of this literature is that the motivational context in one sector is in some way different from that of the other. In fact, two fundamental assumptions are inherent in the approach public sector scholars have taken to study work motivation. The first is that the characteristics of the public sector employee or work environment are different from the private sector and secondly, that these differences have a meaningful impact upon work motivation.

The theoretical model in Figure 2A shows the relationship between the organizational environment, which includes job characteristics, and job characteristics theory, itself. While the prior theories provide a basis for expected outcomes associated with public service, job characteristics theory provides the general test bed against which public service motives are tested in this study. Job characteristics theory arose out of a context in the School of Administration at Yale University. It was strongly disposed toward theory and research dealing with personality variables (Miner, 2005). Early organizational theorists such as Abraham Maslow (1954) and Frederick Herzberg (1968) stated that job satisfaction is caused by individuals' desires to fulfill personal needs, which include intrinsic and extrinsic needs. Job characteristics theory (Hackman and Oldham, 1980) is composed of five core job characteristics which are essential to engage an individual's higher order needs. The first is autonomy, defined as an indication of the degree to which individuals feel personally responsible for their work, and thus they own

their work outcomes. While the authors consider autonomy as a necessary, it is not sufficient condition for experiencing personal responsibility for work or attributing performance to one's own efforts. There must be a high degree of task identity, which is a distinct sense of a beginning and an ending. There must also be high visibility of the intervening transformation process itself, the manifestation of the transformation process in the final product, and a transformation process of considerable magnitude. As a subcomponent of this characteristic, the opportunity to use skills and abilities that are personally valued is noted.

Task significance is another component of job characteristics theory. It relates to the meaningfulness of work. It involves the degree to which the job has substantial impact on the lives or work of other people, either in the immediate organization or in the environment external to it. A factor contributing to the meaningfulness of work is sufficient variety. Only truly challenging variety is included, and that variety utilizes a number of different skills that are of importance to the worker. The last job characteristic espoused by the theory is feedback. The job must provide feedback on the level of accomplishment and such feedback may be built into the task itself or it may stem from external sources, such as supervisors and coworkers. Hackman and Oldham (1980) contended that the worst possible circumstance for a job that is high in motivating potential would be when the job incumbent is only marginally competent to perform the work and has low needs for personal growth at work and is highly dissatisfied with one or more aspects of the work context. The job clearly would be too much for that individual and negative personal and work outcomes would be predicted. The authors purported that it would be better for the person as well as for the organization, for the individual to

perform relatively more simple and routine work. On the other hand, if an individual is fully competent to carry out the work required by a complex, challenging task and has strong needs for personal growth and is well satisfied with the work context, then it is expected that high personal work satisfaction and high work motivation and performance would exist. Figure 2A shows a relationship between job characteristics theory and expectancy theory. This occurs when people's expectancies or perceived likelihood of achieving their wants, are rooted in public service and are attained through public service. At the center of the theoretical model (Figure 2) is motivation, in which intrinsic and extrinsic aspects are influenced by expectancy theory, public service motivation theory, sector choice theory, and job characteristics theory.

Victor Vroom (1966) published research related to the occupational choice question. His subjects were business students who were about to obtain masters degrees from Carnegie-Mellon University. His objective was to predict the attractiveness of various potential employing organizations (and ultimately the choice itself) from knowledge of what goals were important to the individual and how instrumental membership in each organization was perceived to be as a means of achieving each goal. Questionnaire ratings on a number of variables were obtained prior to job choice. Job goals or outcomes such as a chance to benefit society, freedom from supervision, high salary, and the like were rated in terms of their importance to the person. The three organizations in which the subject was most interested were then evaluated to establish the degree to which the student thought each might provide an opportunity to satisfy each type of goal. Combining these two variables, an instrumentality-goal index was calculated for each organization and related both to the attractiveness rating given to the

organization and to the subsequent choice. The results indicate clearly that organizations viewed as providing a means to achieving important goals were considered more attractive. Eliminating organizations that ultimately did not make an offer, seventy-six percent of the students subsequently chose the organization with the highest instrumentality-goal score.

The majority of research related to work motivation in the public sector has been from the perspective of need-based or drive-based theories. While many theorists have distinguished between individual needs, values and reward preferences, Wright (2001) treated these concepts together as they have a common focus on the desirability of work-related opportunities and outcomes as characteristics of the employee. Research generally has suggested that employees in one organization may differ from employees in another as a result of attraction-selection-attrition (Schneider, 1987) or even adaptation processes (Hall, Schneider, and Nyguen, 1975; Hinrichs, 1964). Empirical evidence suggests a bidirectional relationship between employee values and job choice. Employees may select an employment sector that is consistent with their own motives and their motives may also change as a function of employment sector choice (Rosenburg, 1957).

Studies have addressed the question of whether public service motivation is indeed found among public employees. Several job characteristics or reward motivators have been examined: high pay, job security, prestige and status, promotion, and work that is helpful to others or serves the public interest. One of the most enduring images is that public sector employees are less motivated by financial rewards than are private employees. Early research by Kilpatrick, Cummings, and Jennings (1964) and Schuster

(1974) reinforced this portrayal of the government worker. In a survey of 275 middle-level managers in public agencies and private firms in a large midwestern state, Rainey (1982) also found that federal managers rated money lower as a career goal than did business managers. In his Israeli study, Solomon (1986) reported that pay was a more important incentive in the private sector. Similarly, Wittmer (1991) and Jurkiewicz, Massey and Brown (1998) concluded that in contrast to public employees, the most important reward for private sector employees was higher pay. Recently, however, Gabris and Simo (1995) and Crewson (1997) found no statistical difference on high pay as a motivator between public and private sector employees. In spite of this last research finding, the general conclusion drawn from research is that public employees are less motivated by financial rewards than are private sector employees.

In comparison with the finding related to high pay, research on the importance of job security to public employees is less consistent. The need for job security has been found by some researchers to be similar in the two sectors (Gabris and Simo 1995; Rainey, 1982; Rawls and Nelson, 1975), while others have found that private-sector employees place a greater value on it than do their public-sector counterparts (Newstrom, Reif, and Monczka, 1976; Wittmer, 1991). Lewis and Frank (2002) found that those who strongly valued job security were more likely to want to work for the government. However, since job security and retirement are significant attractors to military service, it is expected that public employees place more emphasis on job security than do private sector employees.

Although employee characteristics may be shaped by the organization (Cherniss and Kane, 1987; Guyot, 1960; Posner and Schmidt, 1996; Rainey, 1983; Wittmer, 1991),

public administration scholars have tended to view employee motives as inputs “brought to the work situation” that represent “the raw materials in the public sector motivational processes” (Wright, 2001, p. 3). Indirect support for this emphasis on self-selection (i.e. that individuals sort themselves into employment sectors) has been provided by studies indicating that employees tend to work for organizations they feel will satisfy their most important needs (Graham and Renwick, 1972; Lawler, 1971). Unfortunately, little research has directly tested the hypothesis that sector employment choice is a consequence of employee motives. While studies have found evidence to support the assertion that individual characteristics such as personality (Rawls, Ullrich, and Nelson, 1975) and values (Edwards, Nalbandian, and Wedel, 1981; Perry 1996 and 1997; Posner and Schmidt, 1982) predict sector employment preference, this research studied employee characteristics only in post employment settings. Any causal inferences made from research conducted after employment choice has been made are highly suspect, as they have confounded the effects of selection, attrition and adaptation processes. As a function of temporal sequence in measurement, the theoretical basis for the relationship between employee motives and sector employment choice has been largely unanalyzed (Wright, 2001).

Although few researchers have attempted an empirical validation of the causal direction of the purported relationship between the employee motives and sector employment choice, a substantial number have investigated whether or not a relationship does exist. Under the assumption that employees are more likely to be in organizations that are consistent with their own values or needs, the public sector often has been expected to employ individuals with motives that are grounded primarily in that which

public organization can provide (Baldwin, 1984; Crewson, 1997; Perry and Wise, 1990; Perry, 1996 and 1997). Charged with promoting general social welfare, as well as the protection of the society and every individual in it, public organizations often have missions with broader scope and more profound impact than is typically found in the private sector (Baldwin, 1984). The composition of the public workforce has been expected to reflect the nature of the work in the public sector, attracting employees who desire greater opportunities to fulfill higher-order needs and altruistic motives.

The findings of the empirical research provided mixed support for this expectation. While some initial studies found that public-sector employees have higher achievement needs than their private-sector counterparts (Guyot, 1960; McClelland, 1961), more recent studies have suggested that, even if public employees rank achievement as one of the more important work-related rewards, they value achievement less than do employees in the private sector (Khojasteh, 1993; Posner and Schmidt, 1996). No significant difference has been shown between public- and private-sector employees on other higher-order needs such as accomplishment (Maidani, 1991), autonomy (Jurkeiwicz, Massey, and Brown, 1998), or self-actualization (Newstrom, Reif, and Monczka, 1976). The very assumption that supports the existence of stronger higher-order needs among public employees was challenged by Gabris and Simo (1995), who found that public employees viewed the private sector as having a better capacity to provide exciting, challenging and fulfilling work.

Findings also have been mixed in comparisons of other need characteristics. While no difference in power needs was identified between sectors (Guyot, 1960), public employees have been found to view the importance of status or esteem needs as lower

(Jurkiewicz, Massey, and Brown, 1998; Rainey, 1982; Wittmer, 1991), higher (Maidani, 1991), or no different (Newstrom, Reif, and Monczka, 1976) than do private-sector employees. Some discrepancies in the research findings may have been due to confounding the effects of sector employment with the effects of other variables such as profession (Baldwin, 1991). In sum, Wright (2001) argued that research on sector differences in employee motives should be viewed with some caution. Although some evidence has suggested that a relationship exists between employee motives and sector employment, these findings have not been entirely consistent and the causal direction remains uncertain.

If sector differences occur in work context, they may influence important aspects of the job or task an employee performs at work (Wright, 2001). Some theorists have suggested that public employees may experience greater task significance and job challenge than private-sector employees because public organizations provide employees with opportunities to address important social issues (Baldwin, 1984; Perry and Wise, 1990). Other scholars, however, have suggested that any benefits of such missions are offset by the multiple, ambiguous, and conflicting goals held by public-sector organizations, which make performance difficult to direct and measure (Baldwin, 1984). The prevalence of formal constraints, associated frequently with the public sector, also is expected to reduce the autonomy, variety, difficulty, and task identity of public-sector jobs.

Although the relationship between work context and job characteristics has not been studied directly, several studies have investigated potential differences in job characteristics across sectors. Implicit in these studies is an assumption that differences

in job characteristics between employment sectors exist as a result of differences in the work context of each sector. In perhaps the most comprehensive study that has investigated the effects of public-sector jobs on motivation and job satisfaction, Emmert and Taher (1992), found that professional public employees did not differ from national norms on skill variety, task identification, task significance, autonomy, or feedback. Similarly, Rainey (1983) failed to find a significant difference between public and private sectors in terms of task variety. Posner and Schmidt (1982) found contradictory evidence that suggests that public-sector jobs not only have greater variety but they also have more task significance. In a survey that compared public employees pursuing graduate degrees in public administration and private-sector employees pursuing graduate degrees in business administration, Posner and Schmidt (1982) found that public employees perceived that their jobs provided greater variety and more worthwhile accomplishment than did employees in the private sector. This latter finding, however, is in conflict with other work that has found that public-sector employees experience lower personal significance reinforcement (Buchanan, 1974) and less ability to exert influence on their organizations (Cacioppe and Mock, 1984). Public-sector scholars also have mixed findings when differences in task difficulty or job challenge between employment sectors have been investigated. While one study found that public-sector employees perceived that the private sector had the best capacity to provide exciting and challenging work (Gabris and Simo, 1995) other studies have found that public employees experienced the same level of task difficulty as (Rainey, 1983) or even greater job challenge than their private-sector counterparts (Posner and Schmidt, 1982). These studies provide some evidence that job characteristics differ directly as a function of sector.

Wright (2001) reported that although the existing empirical evidence has not consistently confirmed the hypothesized existence of public-private distinctions in employee motives or work context, the possible existence of such differences provides much of the theoretical foundation for studying work motivation in the public sector. If differences do exist, it is important to understand their impact on variables relevant to the effective operation of public and private organizations such as work motivation. Even if differences do not exist, however, the study of the impact that characteristics of public-sector employees and environments have on work motivation may still be instrumental in identifying and understanding the determinants of work motivation.

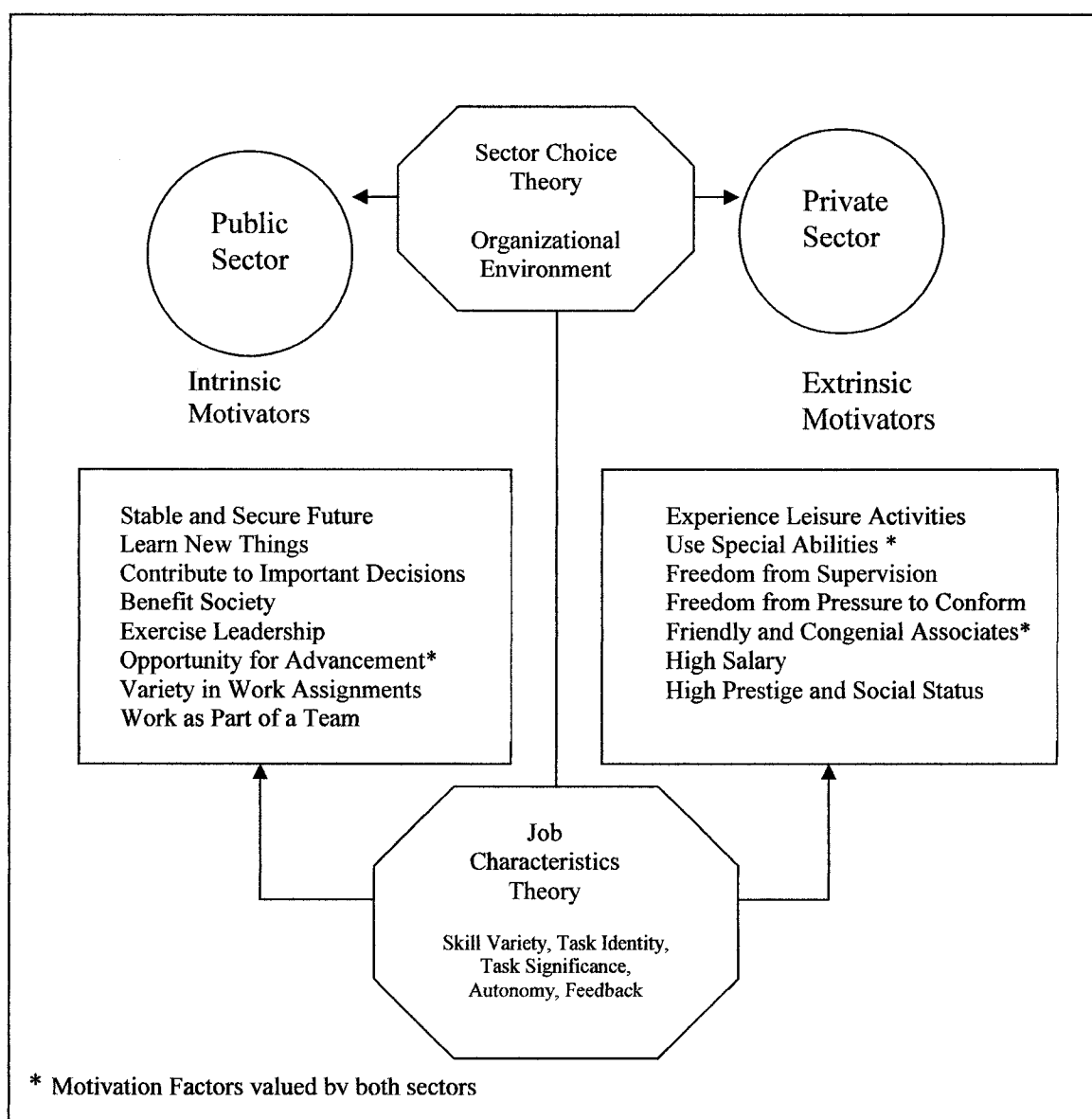
Occupational choices, location and era all influence one's likelihood of working in the public sector. Almost all soldiers, firefighters, police officers, and school teachers work in the public sector. In the sense that motivation predisposes one to a particular sector of employment, the following discussion lays the specific groundwork for the hypotheses to be tested in the current study.

From the confluence of the four theories presented in Figure 2A, a subsequent model, Figure 2B, can be extracted to further delineate the motivational differences expected as a result of the sector of employment one chooses. Perry (1996) argued that public employees are characterized by a public service motive and generally have been found to rate intrinsic rewards more highly than do private sector employees. Relevant literature reveals that work motivation among public sector employees and managers is very different from that of their private sector counterparts (Ambrose and Kulik, 1999; Rainey and Bozeman, 2000; Wittmer, 1991; and Wright, 2001). Kilpatrick, Cummings, and Jennings (1964) found that job seekers typically rate financial rewards; job security;

worthwhile, useful and challenging work; opportunities for advancement; and good working conditions as the most important considerations in choosing a job. Therefore, individual preferences for government or business jobs reflect not only their own job priorities, but their perceptions of which sector will better satisfy their needs (Lewis and Frank, 2002). The relationship between the importance people place on various job attributes and their preference for public or private sector should indicate which priorities lead to a predisposition to public employment and what stereotypes are held about jobs in the two sectors (Lewis and Frank, 2002).

The model in Figure 2B dichotomizes the organizational environment element of sector choice theory into public and private sectors. Fifteen motivation factors commonly used in past research to discern what employees and managers value most in their work settings (Heimovics and Brown, 1976; Jurkeiwicz, 2000, 2002) are split into intrinsic and extrinsic categories for consideration. Based on the elements of job characteristics theory (Hackman and Oldham, 1980), Heimovics and Brown (1976) used an instrument developed in the School of Administration at Yale University, which contained the 15 motivation factors, to understand what values (wants) municipal employees thought to be important and their perceived likelihood of attaining those wants (gets) within their organizations. Those 15 motivation factors are associated with either public sector (intrinsic) employment or private sector (extrinsic) employment. In order to predict when an individual will experience job satisfaction, it is necessary to know something about the values and norms to which he or she subscribes or the culture with which he is associated (Heimovics and Brown, 1976).

Figure 2B: Public versus Private Sector Motivators based on Job Characteristics



Heimovics and Brown (1976) assessed the relative importance of the 15 motivation factors for public-municipal employees in terms of the culture of their work. The current research presumes the cultures of work to be either public or private sector employment. Heimovics and Brown (1976) believed that in a given social group, there is usually enough basic similarity in fundamental beliefs and attitudes to make accurate,

general predictions. Their thought was that understanding what individuals wanted from their work would lead to setting the motivational climate or at least understanding the characteristics of job motivation in terms of an exchange process.

For the municipal employees in the five cities surveyed, Heimovics and Brown (1976) found these motivation factors to be in top five motivations: stable and secure future; chance to learn new things; opportunity for advancement; working as part of a team; and a chance to benefit society. The least important motivators for this group were as follows: high salary; freedom from pressures to conform; freedom from supervision; chance to engage in satisfying leisure activities; and high prestige and social status. Heimovic and Brown (1976) further controlled for age for the purpose of analysis.

Many of the motivation factors, particularly those of an intrinsic nature have been found to be more important to public servants, while others have been shown to be clearly associated with private sector employees. For some of the motivation factors, research has been inconsistent with regard to their importance to employees of either sector.

Public Service Motivators

Employees in the public sector often choose to deliver worthwhile service to society (Rainey, 1982). They are motivated by a sense of duty and have concern for the community, and public interest (Crewson, 1997; Perry, 1996; Wittmer, 1991). Having a chance to benefit society is a motivation factor that captures that idea. It is expected that individuals in this study would place high value on the opportunity to perform such service. Contributing to important decisions reflects a public service employee's desire to effect change in communities, as well as to participate in policy development and

implementation. Unlike private sector employees who are considered more self-serving, public service employees are thought to have an intrinsic desire to make a difference in the lives of others (Perry, 1996). It is expected that those motivated for public service would place high value on this motivation factor.

Having job security, in terms of stability and long term commitment, has been shown to be important to both public and private sector employees. The conflicting findings regarding job security may be due to a difference in the time in which the studies were conducted. Studies which found job security to be more important for public sector than private sector employees were conducted in the 1970s and 1980s ((Karl and Sutton, 1998). Cacioppe and Mock (1984) found that public service employees were more job security oriented than employees in the private sector. Karl and Sutton (1998) contended that layoffs and restructuring in the last few decades have caused more private sector employees to be concerned with job security. However, Lewis and Frank (2002) found that those who strongly valued job security were more likely to want to work for the government. The military, as a public service, has long been chosen for its retirement benefits and potential guarantee of career employment if that is what individuals desire. While Karl and Sutton (1998) hypothesized no difference in the two sectors on this motivation factor, it is expected in this study that a chance to have a stable and secure future would be highly valued by public sector employees.

Leadership, education and training are core elements of the military service. It is expected that individuals will be trained to lead others. Though it is not unique to the public sector, the act of leadership is pervasive in the military service. No other public organization relies as extensively as the military on the art of leadership. Perhaps that is

because leadership or lack thereof can result in loss of life. It is expected that in this analysis of the military as a public setting, the chance to exercise leadership will be highly valued by those with bent toward public service.

Today's government requires a highly educated workforce. Many occupations requiring college educations are concentrated in the public sector, such as teachers. Blank (1985) found that the probability of government employment rises markedly with education. While a college education is not a requirement for enlisting in the military, a quest for education often draws people to serve in the military. Having a chance to learn new things can occur in both sectors, but it is a guarantee and one of the motivators associated with joining military (Baker and Jennings, 2000). Skills training provide an opportunity to learn new things and funded college education is assured to enhance the professional and personal growth of personnel. As such, this motivation factor represents a clear motivator for public service in the context of this study.

A factor contributing to the meaningfulness of work is having sufficient variety in assignments (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Some theorists have suggested that public employees may experience greater task significance and job challenge than private-sector employees because public organizations provide employees with opportunities to address important social issues (Baldwin, 1984; Perry and Wise, 1990). The military guarantees and depends on the concept of variety in assignments. Not only do assignments vary, but the organizations and locations in which individuals work varies. Most assignments can be matched to goal attainment, which results in benefit for larger entities, and could be construed as contributing to a greater good. For this reason, it is expected that

individuals in this study who are attracted to public service would place high value on having variety in work assignments.

Lastly, the motivation factor, working as part of a team, is thought to be associated with public service employees. In the Heimovics and Brown (1976) study, this factor was ranked second in importance relative to the other motivation factors. In the case of the military, teamwork is essential and expected. Indoctrination into the military involves a transformation from being focused on one's self to an unrelenting team focus. For the purpose of this study, the expectation is that those geared toward public service would value this motivation factor.

Private Sector Motivators

The private sector has long been touted by researchers as appealing to extrinsic needs (Crewson, 1997; Kilpatrick, Cummings, and Jennings, 1964; Jurkiewicz, Massey and Brown, 1998). Consistently, research has found that private sector employees and managers value economic rewards more highly than do public sector employees and managers (Cacioppe and Mock, 1984). Based on an analysis of 14 national surveys, Crewson (1997) concluded that economic rewards are most important to private sector employees. For instance, an enduring sentiment in public service motivation research is that pay is generally accepted as a much greater motivator for private sector employees than it is for public servants (Jurkiewicz, Massey, and Brown, 1998; Kilpatrick, Cummings, and Jennings, 1964; Schuster, 1974; Solomon, 1986).

The motivator, high prestige and social status, along with a chance to engage in leisure activities are thought to be extrinsically focused. Public service as a higher calling would exclude these motivators, and thus they are associated with the private

sector. Heimovics and Brown (1976) found these items to be the least desired motivation factors of the municipal employees they surveyed. Likewise, they found that having freedom from supervision and freedom from pressures to conform to be ranked low in terms of importance. The military is not a setting whereby one can be free from supervision and conformance is inculcated in the culture of military service. Therefore, the expectation in this study is that individuals who value high prestige, leisure, freedom from supervision and freedom from pressure to conform would be more likely to demonstrate values associated with the private sector.

Public and Private Sector Motivators

Having the opportunity to advance or to get promoted is motivation for both public and private sector employees. Wright (2001) described research related to motivation in the public sector as derived from needs-based theories (Maslow, 1954; Herzberg, 1968). Guyot (1960) and Mclelland (1961) found that public sector employees had higher achievement needs than private sector counterparts. More recently, it was found that even if public employees rank achievement as one of the more important factors of work, they valued achievement less than private sector employees (Khojasteh, 1993; Posner and Schmidt, 1996). Maidani (1991) found no significant difference on higher order needs such as accomplishment. In the current study, it is understood that the military offers opportunities for consistent and predictable advancement. In light of the military as a public service, it is expected that this motivation factor would be valued by public servants.

The chance to use special abilities is part of establishing task significance (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Individuals, regardless of sector employment, want to

feel that the skills and talents that are personal to them are valued and utilized. Likewise, having friendly and congenial work associates is an important characteristic of the job environment which influences overall satisfaction. In terms of employment choice, the question becomes a matter of which sector is more likely to offer a chance to use special abilities and a friendly work environment. Although Heimovics and Brown (1976) found both motivation factors to be moderately ranked (middle 5), the assumption in this study is that both factors would be preferred by private sector employees. The military may offer chances to use special abilities, but necessary skills will be taught and not presumed. Also, while many organizations within the military are friendly and have high morale, it cannot be presumed to be a general principle.

Sector Employment and Demographics

Buelens and Van den Broeck (2007) reported that research in public service motivation fails to control for relevant explanatory variables, often because of very small sample sizes. When samples of public sector and private sector employees contain too many differences in gender, age, race, education, or hierarchical level, the differences in work motivation can be explained simply by these demographic or organizational factors alone. For instance, minorities were nearly twice as likely as whites to want government jobs, although they were no more likely to have them (Lewis and Frank, 2002). They were also substantially and significantly more likely than comparable whites both to desire and to have government jobs, after controlling for other variables. Also, when looking at college graduates, Lewis and Frank (2007) found that attitudes toward government have a strong impact on the decision to work in that sector.

Previous research has attempted to determine if the reported job satisfaction differences between civilian and military personnel were due to differences in individual characteristics between the two groups or to differences in the characteristics of the work environment. For instance, Blair and Phillips (1983) found differences in job motivators between military personnel and civilians remained after controlling for gender, race and education. Fredland and Little (1983), controlling for a number of demographic variables and job experience and perceptions, found that differences in job satisfaction between military and civilian samples could be accounted for by ratings of the following four elements of job characteristics: chance to do best, pleasant surroundings, valuable experience, and good income. They found that time on the job, education, and job experience did not predict motivation or satisfaction. Fredland and Little (1983) noted that this information would provide the opportunity for either targeting more appropriate recruits or redesigning jobs to improve the worker's actual or perceived experience.

Demographic characteristics of recruits also may affect the rate of attrition from the Delayed Entry Program. Race, gender, and educational attainment are all factors potentially related to the likelihood of quitting the Delayed Entry Program. For example, if Black and Hispanic recruits have less attractive civilian alternatives than Whites, they would be less likely to receive civilian job offers between the time of contract and the date of departure (Questor and Murray, 1985). In fact, non-white recruits had lower overall attrition rates than White recruits.

Although women and minorities still earn less than comparably educated and experienced white males in the federal service (Lewis, 1998), the white male pay advantage is smaller in government than in the private sector (Asher and Popkin, 1984;

Perloff and Wachter, 1984). In addition, governments have older and better-enforced bans on discrimination against women and minorities, and many grant veterans preferential treatment in hiring and promotions. Blank (1985) found that members of “protected” groups (minorities, women, and veterans) were more likely to work for the government than whites, males and non-veterans with similar characteristics. In the current study, gender, race and education differences will be examined for theoretical purposes. The expectation is that people prefer to work for the sector that they think will provide them with more of the rewards they consider important. Those who place great value on job security and service to the public should be more likely to choose government jobs, while those who place higher priority on pay and extrinsic rewards will prefer whichever sector they think will satisfy those needs.

Previous research indicates male-female differences in preferences regarding job characteristics (Filer, 1989; Killingsworth, 1987; O’Neill, 1983; Sorensen, 1989). Early research exploring this relationship found that females preferred friendly co-workers (Centers and Bugental, 1966) and supportive leadership (Schuler, 1975). More recent research supports these findings. Filer (1985) found that females had a greater preference than did men for friendly, supportive working relationships and flexibility in their work schedules, and that men were more likely to value challenge in their jobs. Fox and Schuhmann (1999), in a study on gender and local government, found that women managers placed higher value than men on the opportunity to perform public service, to help the community and to work with citizen groups. Men rated the desire to have a good job and to make a difference higher than the women. In addition, Killingsworth (1987) found that males place greater emphasis on earnings than do females. It is expected in

the current study that women will place high value on the chance to benefit society, to work as part of a team, to have friendly and congenial associates, to learn new things, to earn a high salary, and a chance to have a stable and secure future. Additionally, since government is believed to be an equalizer in terms of pay and opportunity, it is also likely that women would value the chance to earn a high salary and to have opportunity for advancement. Men are thought to be more extrinsically motivated and thus, it is expected that they will place a high value on the chance to earn a high salary, to contribute to important decisions, opportunity for advancement, high prestige and social status, exercise leadership, and to have a stable and secure future.

In a study of the dilemmas of minority public administrators, Murray, Terry, Washington and Keller (1994) reported that minorities were primarily concerned with job security. While they cared about providing service to the communities from which they originate, they had sometimes competing interests of personal achievement and opportunity for professional growth. Murray, et al (1994) claimed that some minorities go out of their way to appear as team players, and because of a need for acceptance, they tend to conform to institutional and professional norms and are less likely to resist orders. Minorities expect higher pay advantages to government jobs than comparably educated and experienced white men. Better-educated individuals should find more opportunities to do the kind of work they want in the public sector (Fox and Schuhmann, 1999). In that government service offers more protection against discrimination and a better chance of equal opportunity for minority citizens, it is expected that minorities in this study would place high value on the chance to have a stable and secure future, to learn new things,

opportunity for advancement, high salary, working as part of a team, and high prestige and social status.

In terms of education, some researchers have argued that employees with more education rationalize the available alternatives for changing jobs or leaving employers (O'Reilly and Caldwell, 1981). However, other researchers have maintained that more educated employees have a greater number of job alternatives and thus are less likely to become stuck in any job or organization. As a result, they are less likely to develop great affections toward their jobs and organizations (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Educated employees often have higher expectations that jobs or organizations may not be able to meet. While today's government requires a highly educated workforce, recruits with more education may be less motivated to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than those recruits with less education. They may have more options. On the other hand, high-school graduates have limited opportunities for employment. It is expected that they would value motivators such as a stable and secure future, high salary, high prestige and social status, chance to learn new things, to contribute to important decisions and opportunity for advancement.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between the motivation of recruits who were in the Navy Delayed Entry Program and its potential influence on the decision to stay or quit the program. That is, the study sought to explore differences in the motivation of the group who stayed in the program and the group that quit. Motivation is considered to have an influence over the decision to stay and proceed to basic training or to quit the program. Thus, motivation is the independent variable and decision is the dependent variable. The following hypotheses were formulated to explore the relationship between them.

Hypotheses

H₁: Recruits who rank *Stable and Secure Future* high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low.

H₂: Recruits who rank *Experience Leisure Activity* high are more likely to quit the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low.

H₃: Recruits who rank *Learn New Things* high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low.

H₄: Recruits who rank *Exercise Leadership* high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low.

H₅: Recruits who rank *Chance to Use Special Abilities* high are more likely to quit the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low.

H₆: Recruits who rank *Contribute to Important Decisions* high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low.

H₇: Recruits who rank *Benefit Society* high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low.

H₈: Recruits who rank *Freedom from Supervision* high are more likely to quit the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low.

H₉: Recruits who rank *Freedom from Pressure to Conform* high are more likely to quit the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low.

H₁₀: Recruits who rank *Friendly and Congenial Associations* high are more likely to quit the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low.

H₁₁: Recruits who rank *High Salary* high are more likely to quit the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low.

H₁₂: Recruits who rank *High Prestige and Social Status* high are more likely to quit the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low.

H₁₃: Recruits who rank *Opportunity for Advancement* high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low.

H₁₄: Recruits who rank *Variety in Work Assignments* high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low.

H₁₅: Recruits who rank *Working as Part of a Team* high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than recruits rank it low.

Based on prior research of motivational preferences of various subgroups, several hypotheses regarding the demographic variables were also examined in this study.

H₁₆: Male recruits who rank the following motivation factors high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than males who rank them low: *Stable and Secure Future, Opportunity for Advancement, High Salary, High Prestige and Social Status, Exercise Leadership, and Contribute to Important Decisions.*

H₁₇: Female recruits who rank the following motivation factors high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than females who rank them low: *Stable and Secure Future, Learn New Things, Opportunity for Advancement, Benefit Society, Working as Part of a Team, High Salary, and Friendly and Congenial Associates.*

H₁₈: Minority recruits who rank the following motivation factors high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than minorities who rank them low: *Stable and Secure Future, Learn New Things, Opportunity for Advancement, High Prestige and Social Status, Friendly and Congenial Associates, and Working as Part of A Team.*

H₁₉: Recruits who did not graduate high school who rank the following motivation factors high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than those who rank them low: *Stable and Secure Future, Learn New Things, Opportunity for Advancement, High Prestige and Social Status, High Salary, and Contribute to Important Decisions.*

Operational Definitions of Key Variables

Control variables for the study which describe the sample are as follows:

- Gender (Male, Female)
- Race (White, Black, Hispanic, Asian)
- Minority (Non-White)
- Education (Non-High School Graduate, High School Graduate, College Experience)

- Stable and Secure Future (SSF) represents the chance to have long term job security.
- Learn New Things (LNT) represents the chance to acquire skills and knowledge.
- Experience Leisure Activity is the chance to have time for leisure activities.
- Exercise Leadership (ELA) is the chance to exercise control and influence others.
- Special Abilities (SA) represents the chance to use skills and abilities that are personally valued.
- Contribute to Important Decisions represents the chance to perform significant tasks that result in meaningful action.
- Benefit Society (BS) represents the chance to impact the lives or work of others, either in immediate environment or society at large.
- Freedom from Supervision (FFS) represents the chance to exercise autonomy.
- Freedom from Pressure to Conform (FFPC) is the chance to exercise individual choice.
- Friendly and Congenial Associates (FCA) represents the chance to work in a friendly and supportive environment.
- High Salary (HS) is the chance to earn a good salary as defined by the individual.
- High Prestige and Social Status (HPSS) is the chance to be respected socially.
- Opportunity for Advancement (OA) represents the chance to get promoted.
- Variety in Work Assignments (VWA) is the chance to work on various assignments.
- Working as Part of a Team (WPT) is the chance to be a member of a team

Research Design and Instrumentation

The research design for this exploratory study is a survey design. The survey design included an instrument which ranked in order of importance 15 motivation factors (Heimovics and Brown, 1976), later referred to as employee needs (Appendix A). It was developed at the School of Administration, Yale University and implemented by Heimovics and Brown (1976) to survey the job wants of municipal employees. Pearson product test-retest reliability coefficients were previously computed for the questionnaire as $r = .81$. The instrument was later copyrighted in 2000 by Carole Jurkiewicz. Both Dr. Heimovics and Dr. Jurkiewicz granted permission to use the survey. This survey was selected because of its ease of use for a group largely comprised of young adults. The economy of the design and rapid turnaround were conducive to the time constraints of this study.

The survey instrument was field-tested amongst 20 individuals in the Delayed Entry Program to ascertain issues of comprehension and ease of use. It was found to be adequate for this study. Dr. Jurkiewicz (2001) used this instrument in a cross-sectional study to compare work-related differences and similarities of 241 Generation Xers and Baby Boomer employees in the public sector. She employed it again in a study of what motivates supervisory and non-supervisory municipal employees (Jurkiewicz, 2002).

Sampling Design and Methods of Data Collection

At the time of this study Navy Recruiting District, Philadelphia PA was one of the largest of thirty-one Navy Recruiting Districts in the nation. Other large districts were located in New York, Los Angeles, San Diego, and Miami. Navy Recruiting District Philadelphia consisted of forty-four counties within a six-state region (Virginia,

Maryland, West Virginia, Delaware, Pennsylvania and New Jersey) and the District of Columbia totaling 18,588 square miles of dry land. Within this footprint were nine zones comprised of forty-four active duty enlisted recruiting stations, as well as recruiting offices for officer and reserve programs. The current study is limited to active duty enlisted recruits. When this study began in 2005, the average unemployment rate for the district was 4.5% (slightly below the national average) with the highest rate of 11.4% in Worchester County, Maryland, and the lowest rate of 2.2% in Montgomery County, Maryland. There were five metropolitan areas where population figures are among the highest in the nation, Washington, D.C., Philadelphia PA, Baltimore MD, Wilmington-Newark DE and Newark NJ. Unfortunately, many of the unemployed among these populations did not meet the Navy criteria for enlistment. Therefore the unemployment rates in these cities do not aid the recruiting district's mission. Suburban areas continue to provide the bulk of highly qualified candidates (Market Operations Plan, Navy Recruiting District Philadelphia, 2003).

The sampling design was non-probability sampling in that the participants in this exploratory study represented a convenience sample of recruits to which the researcher had access. A limitation with non-probability sampling is that the population may or may not be proportionately represented and the rationale of probability theory cannot be applied (Trochim, 2001). In the current study, the sample was taken by asking for volunteers and the respondents were not representative of the population. As such, the disproportionate sample was weighted by race and then by gender to account for under- and overrepresentation. Authorities from Navy Recruiting District Philadelphia granted permission to conduct the study. This research was exempt from Institutional Review

Board requirements for Human Subjects Research by the College of Business and Public Administration Committee.

Questionnaires for data gathering were distributed to recruiting stations for administration. Recruiters at some stations administered the survey during monthly meetings. Most recruiters gave surveys to the recruits to complete at their convenience. A total of 1054 recruits were in the Delayed Entry Program as of May 1st 2005. Recruits who entered the program after that were not surveyed since their departure dates would have exceeded the timeframe of the study and recruits do not typically remain in Delayed Entry Program longer than one year. About 520 surveys were completed and returned. Surveys that were illegible, or could not be cross-referenced, or represented individuals who quit the Delayed Entry Program for other than voluntary reasons were excluded. There were 288 useable surveys in this study

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistical analyses such as frequency distribution were used to portray demographic data and the distribution of other variables. There is no assumption of normal distribution. Spearman's Rho correlation was used to determine the relationship between the dependent variable decision to stay or quit and the 15 motivation factors, which are the independent variables. A Spearman's coefficient of zero would indicate that there is no association whereas a coefficient of one would indicate that the two variables are perfectly correlated. Means analysis was used to examine group differences in terms of the rank order of the 15 motivation factors. The convenience sampling design provided a limited view of group differences in terms of decision, but did offer some insight into the possible motivation differences by demographic variables. Nonparametric

statistical analyses such as chi-square and Mann Whitney U were also performed to investigate relationships and differences. Quantitative data from the surveys were coded and entered in the SPSS Version 11.0 program (SPSS. 2001). Demographic data were obtained from the Navy's Personalized Recruiting for Immediate and Delayed Entry (PRIDE) data system and cross-referenced with surveys.

Limitations of the Study

The participants represented a convenience sample of volunteer participants. As such, there was risk of less-than-proportionate representation of the population. While 1054 surveys were initially distributed, in the final analysis, only 288 were useable for the study. More than eighty-five percent of the sample stayed to complete the Delayed Entry Program. With only 15 percent of the sample representing the group that quit, the results largely reflect characteristics of the group who stayed, limiting the ability to significantly compare groups. The study would have been strengthened by using a random sample and by having a comparison group that never made the decision to join the Navy, nor entered the Delayed Entry Program. However, data collection and access to participants precluded such a design. As such, there is no external validity, and thus this study does not attempt to generalize beyond this group. There is no implication that of inference in this research.

Further, this study did not account for the historical influence of the Global War on Terror. While the Department of Defense (reported in GAO-05-952, August, 2005) found that the public's perception about military enlistment has changed and that youth and their parents believe that deployment to a hostile environment is very likely for some types of service members, that phenomenon is not captured in this current research. The

subjects of this study had already decided to join the Navy and had acted upon that decision by entering the Delayed Entry Program. This study considered the subsequent decision to quit or stay. Additionally, while the influence of recruiters can not be negated, it was noted that they are subjected to standard training which serves to mitigate that influence. Individual differences and behaviors of recruiters are not under study.

CHAPTER IV

Data Analysis

In the current research which used a quantitative approach, data is presented using descriptive and relational techniques to discern the relationship between motivation and the decision to stay or quit. This was a non-parametric study which did not assume a normal distribution and analysis using non-parametric inferential statistics failed to yield significant results. The data suggests that with the exception of race, by and large, the sample consists of more or less a fairly homogeneous group. Since convenience sampling did not proportionately represent the population, analysis was conducted using weighted samples. Whether weighted by race or gender, the analysis failed to yield significant relationships between the 15 motivation factors and the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program. While the insignificant results of statistical analyses are not displayed in graphic or tabular form, they are summarized at the end of the chapter.

Descriptive Analyses

Below, there are tables to describe the data. Additionally, simple bar charts are displayed for the readers' ease of reference, since graphical displays are effective for portraying information readily. The Delayed Entry Program at Navy Recruiting District Philadelphia PA was highly diverse as demonstrated in Table 1A, Table 1B and Table 1C. Males comprised 75 percent of the recruits in the program, while females represented 25%. The Delayed Entry Program pool consisted of 54% Caucasians, 21% African American or Black and 17% Hispanic and 6% Asian. Ninety-five percent of the recruits in the program were high school graduates, many with college experience.

Table 1A: Gender of the Respondents

	Population		Sample	
	N	%	N	%
Male	790	75	231	80
Female	263	25	57	20

Table 1B: Racial Distribution of the Respondents

	Population		Sample	
	N	%	N	%
Caucasian	590	56	209	73
Black	222	21	42	15
Hispanic	179	17	22	7
Asian	63	6	15	5

Table 1C: Educational Distribution of the Respondents

	Population		Sample	
	N	%	N	%
High School	1001	95	275	92
Non-High School	53	5	13	8

As shown in Table 1A, males, with a 75 to 80 percent ratio, were overrepresented in the sample. Females with a 25 to 20 percent ratio, on the other hand were underrepresented. Table 1B displays race representation. Caucasians, with a 56 to 73

percent ratio, were largely overrepresented in the sample. Blacks, who had a 21 to 15 percent ratio and Hispanics with a 17 to 7 percent ratio, were underrepresented. Asian participants were somewhat on par with ratios of 6 to 5 percent. High school graduates (95 to 92 percent) comprise a larger proportion of the population than what was reflected in the sample as seen in Table 1C. However, there was a larger percentage (5 to 8 percent) of non-high school graduates in the sample than would be found or allowed in the population.

The dependent variable in this study was the decision to stay or quit. Table 2 displays the distribution of the respondents by their decision to stay or quit. Of the 288 (N) respondents, 85% (n= 246) completed the Delayed Entry Program and proceeded to basic training and 15% (n=42) quit the program. In terms of gender, the men and women were split 80% (n=231) and 20% (n=57) respectively.

Table 2: The Distribution of the Respondents' Decisions

	N	Percent
Decision		%
Stay	246	85
Quit	42	15
Total	288	100

Table 3: The Distribution of the Respondents by Gender

	N	Percent
Gender		
Male	231	80
Female	57	20
Total	288	100

The data in Table 4 present the numbers of the respondents in four racial categories. Caucasians comprised 73% (n=209) of the sample; Blacks represented 15% (n=42); Hispanics made up 7% of the group with 22 respondents; and Asians made up 5% (n=15).

Table 4: The Distribution of the Respondents by Race

	N	Percent
		%
Caucasian	209	73
Black	42	15
Hispanic	22	7
Asian	15	5
Total	288	100

Education is a control variable with three values: Non-high school graduate (8%, n=23); High School Graduate (87%, n=252); and College Experience (5%, n=13), all shown in Table 5. Typically, less than 5% of a district's Delayed Entry Program does not graduate from high school. This group of non-graduates included individuals who obtained General Education Diplomas. In order to join the Navy, a person without a traditional high school diploma is subjected to extensive scrutiny and requires a waiver for entry. It has been shown that individuals who fail to complete high school are more likely to quit basic training (Folchi, Devlin and Trent, 1993).

Table 5: The Distribution of Respondents by Education

Education	N	Percent %
Non-High School Graduate	23	8
High School Graduate	252	88
College Experience	13	4
Total	288	100

Demographics by Decision to Stay or Quit

In the sample of 288 (N) respondents, 85% (n=246) stayed and completed the Delayed Entry Program and 15% (n=42) quit the program. The demographics of the quit and stay groups are shown in Tables 6A, 6B, and 6C and described below.

Table 6A: The Distribution of the Respondents by Gender and Decision

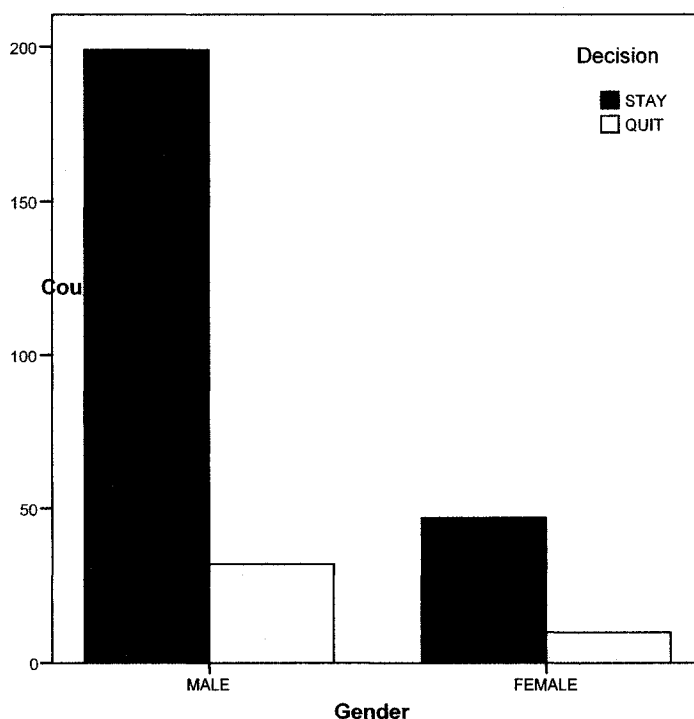
	Stay			Quit			Total	
	N	Percent		N	Percent		N	Percent
Gender		% of Stay Group	% of Gender		% of Quit Group	% of Gender		% of Sample
Male	199	81	86	32	76	14	231	80
Female	47	19	82	10	24	18	57	20
Total	246	100		42	100		288	100

Gender

Among the recruits who stayed in the Delayed Entry Program, 81% (n=199) were male. Likewise, 86% of all males in the sample stayed. Females comprised 19%

(n=32) of those who stayed, and the females who stayed represented 82% of all female respondents in the sample. As seen in Table 6A and Figure 3, of those respondents who quit (n=42) the Delayed Entry Program, 76% (n=32) were male and 24% (n=10) were female. Each group comprised 14% and 18% of total male and female respondents respectively.

Figure 3: The Number of Respondents Who Stayed or Quit by Gender



Race

Seventy-three percent (n=180) of the stay group were Caucasian, which represented 86% of the total Caucasian population in the sample. Thirteen percent (n=33) of the recruits who stayed were Black. This was 78% of all Black participants. Eight percent (n=19) of those who stayed were Hispanic and 86% of all Hispanic recruits

stayed in the program. Six percent (n=14) of those who stayed were Asian which represented 93% of all Asian respondents. Sixty-nine percent (n=29) of those who quit were Caucasian, 21% (n=9) were Black, 7% (n=3) were Hispanic, and 2% (n=1) were Asian. Table 6B and Figure 4 show that relative to the total number of all respondents by race, 14% of all Caucasian respondents quit, 21% of all Black participants quit, while 14% of all Hispanic and 7% of all Asian participants quit the Delayed Entry Program.

Figure 4: The Number of Respondents Who Stayed or Quit by Race

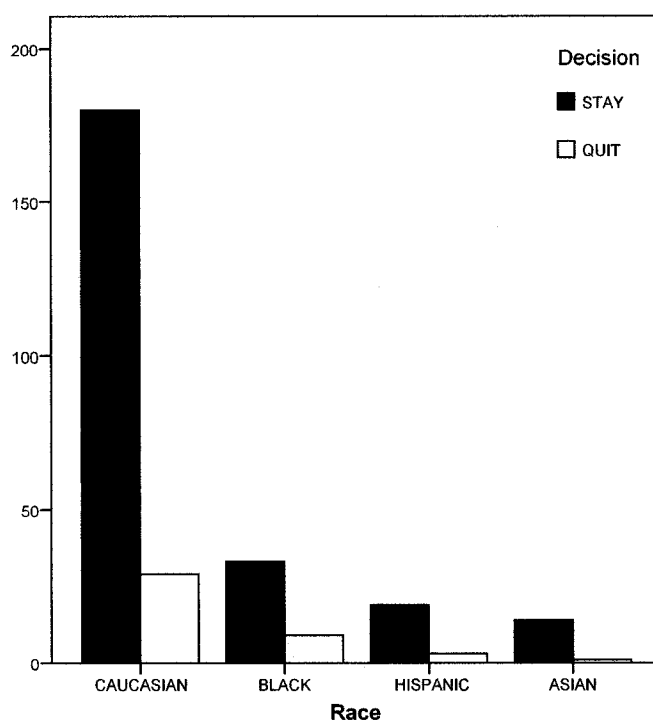


Table 6B: The Distribution of the Respondents by Race and Decision

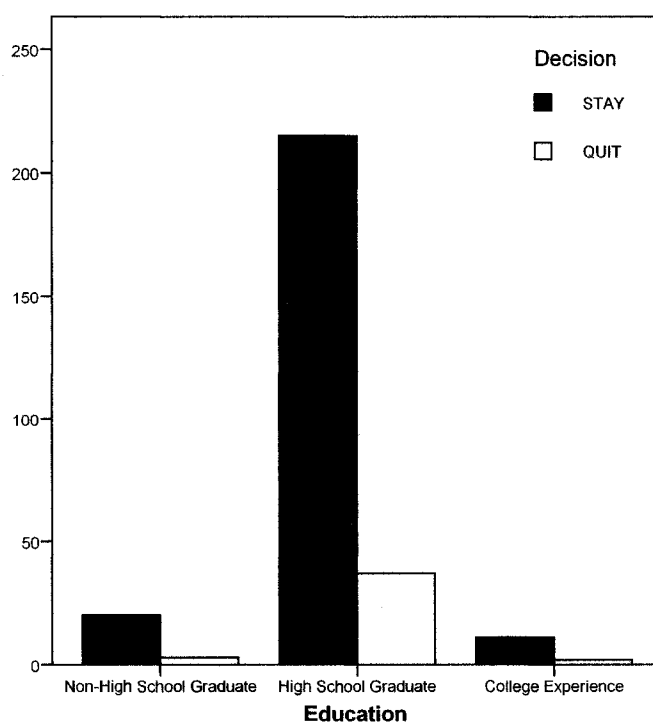
Race	Stay			Quit			Total	
	N	% of Race Category		N	% of Quit Group	% of Race Category	N	% of Sample
Caucasian	180	73	86	29	69	14	209	73
Black	33	13	78	9	21	21	42	15
Hispanic	19	8	86	3	7	14	22	7
Asian	14	6	93	1	2	7	15	5
Total	246	100		42	100		288	100

Education

As shown in Table 6C and depicted in Figure 5, eight percent (n=20) of those who stayed in the Delayed Entry Program did not graduate from high school. Non-high school graduates who stayed represented 87% of all respondents who did not graduate high school. Eighty-seven percent (n=215) of the high school graduates stayed, and they comprised 85% of all high school graduates. Four percent (n=11) of the stay group had college experience, which represented 85% of all respondents with at least some college experience. Likewise, 7% (n=3) of the quitters did not have a high school diploma. High school graduates comprised 88% (n=37) of the respondents who quit and those who quit represented 15% of all high school graduates. Of all participants who did not graduate from high school, 13% quit the program. Five percent (n=2) of the quitters had some college experience and of all participants with college experience, 15% quit the program.

Table 6C: The Distribution of the Respondents by Education and Education

Education	Stay			Quit			Total	
	N	% of Stay Group	% of Education Category	N	% of Quit Group	% of Education Category	N	% of Sample
Non-High School Graduate	20	8	87	3	7	13	23	8
High School Graduate	215	87	85	37	88	15	252	88
College Experience	11	5	85	2	5	15	13	4
Total	246	100		42	100		288	100

Figure 5: The Number of Respondents Who Stayed or Quit by Education

Group Differences

Mean Ranks of 15 Motivation Factors by Decision

The ranks of motivation factors on the basis of the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program were analyzed to test the assumptions in this research. The data were analyzed to explore the importance of the 15 motivation factors to the group who stayed in the Delayed Entry Program and proceeded to basic training. As shown in Table 7, the mean scores were calculated for the stay group and then placed in order of importance from 1 to 15. The high to low ranks range from 1, the highest to 15, the lowest. For the purpose of comparison, ranks from one through seven were classified as high and ranks from 8 through 15 were classified as low. The stay group had 4 high mean scores: *Stable and Secure Future* ($m = 3.39$), *Learn New Things* ($m = 5.57$), *High Salary* ($m = 6.24$), and *Opportunity for Advancement* ($m = 6.67$). When ranked in order of relative importance, high ranks were given to the following motivation factors: a chance to have a *Stable and Secure Future* (1), to *Learn New Things* (2), earn a *High Salary* (3), and an *Opportunity for Advancement* (4). The stay group placed less importance on a chance to *Benefit Society* (8), to have *Variety in Work Assignments* (9), *Contribute to Important Decisions* (10), and *Experience Leisure Activities* (11). Recruits who stayed in the program placed even less importance on the following motivation factors: a chance to have *Friendly Congenial Associates* (13), *Freedom from Supervision* (14) and *Freedom from Pressure to Conform* (15).

Table 7: Mean Rankings of 15 Motivation Factors by Decision to Stay: N = 246

MOTIVATION FACTORS	Rank	Mean	Std. Deviation
Stable and Secure Future	1	3.39	3.47
Learn New Things	2	5.57	3.88
Experience Leisure Activities	11	8.90	4.03
Exercise Leadership	5	7.74	4.07
Special Abilities	6	7.75	3.94
Contribute to Important Decisions	10	8.54	3.68
Benefit Society	8	8.42	3.92
Freedom from Supervision	14	10.33	3.99
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	15	10.52	4.01
Friendly Congenial Associates	13	9.96	3.64
High Salary	3	6.24	4.46
High Prestige and Social Status	12	9.30	4.10
Opportunity for Advancement	4	6.67	3.71
Variety in Work Assignments	9	8.46	3.72
Working as Part of a Team	7	7.98	3.92

Table 8 displays the mean ranks and rank order importance of the 15 motivation factors for the group of recruits that quit the Delayed Entry Program. Results for this group were very similar to the results seen in the stay group. Recruits who quit the program ranked the same top four factors that the stay group ranked in both mean scores and order of importance: a chance to have a *Stable and Secure Future* (1, $m = 2.71$), to *Learn New Things* (2, $m = 5.33$), earn a *High Salary* (3, $m = 5.21$), and *Opportunity for Advancement* (4, $m = 5.71$). Though not in the same order as the stay group, the quit group considered the same additional motivation factors to be important: *Working as*

Part of a Team (5), to use *Special Abilities* (6), and to *Exercise Leadership* (7). Like the stay group, the recruits who quit did not place high value on a chance to *Contribute to Important Decisions* (8), *Benefit Society* (9), to have *High Prestige and Social Status* (10), a chance to have *Friendly Congenial Associates* (11), and *Variety in Work Assignments* (12). Nor did the quit group consider the chance to *Experience Leisure Activities* (13), *Freedom from Pressure to Conform* (14), and *Freedom from Supervision* (15) to be important.

More than any subgroups by which the sample was divided, groups divided on the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program yielded the least difference in relative rankings of motivation factors. The groups behaved almost identically in terms of what motivation factors they considered important as shown in Table 9 and Table 10. While the items ranked high were the same for both groups, the order of preference varied slightly. For instance, the quit group ranked *Working as Part of a Team* number five, whereas the stay group ranked it seventh. Likewise, the stay group ranked the chance to *Exercise Leadership* number five and the quit group ranked it seventh of the 15 motivation factors. The same is true for the factors that were least important. Both groups gave low rankings to the same motivation factors, though the order of preferences varied to a small degree.

Table 8: Mean Rankings of 15 Motivation Factors by Decision to Quit: N = 42

MOTIVATION FACTORS	Rank	Mean	Std. Deviation
Stable and Secure Future	1	2.71	2.69
Learn New Things	2	5.33	3.47
Experience Leisure Activities	13	9.79	3.82
Exercise Leadership	7	8.62	3.74
Special Abilities	6	8.24	4.21
Contribute to Important Decisions	8	9.00	3.67
Benefit Society	9	9.02	3.82
Freedom from Supervision	15	10.31	4.03
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	14	10.19	3.91
Friendly Congenial Associates	11	9.38	3.92
High Salary	3	5.21	3.89
High Prestige and Social Status	10	9.14	4.14
Opportunity for Advancement	4	5.71	3.26
Variety in Work Assignments	12	9.71	4.03
Working as Part of a Team	5	7.81	4.13

Table 9: The Mean Score Comparisons of 15 Motivation Factors by Decision**Group Statistics**

	Decision	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Stable and Secure Future	STAY	246	3.39	3.472	.221
	QUIT	42	2.71	2.690	.415
Learn New Things	STAY	246	5.57	3.889	.248
	QUIT	42	5.33	3.476	.536
Experience Leisure Activities	STAY	246	8.90	4.038	.257
	QUIT	42	9.79	3.822	.590
Exercise Leadership	STAY	246	7.74	4.077	.260
	QUIT	42	8.62	3.748	.578
Special Abilities	STAY	246	7.75	3.938	.251
	QUIT	42	8.24	4.218	.651
Contribute to Important Decisions	STAY	246	8.54	3.675	.234
	QUIT	42	9.00	3.676	.567
Benefit Society	STAY	246	8.42	3.921	.250
	QUIT	42	9.02	3.822	.590
Freedom from Supervision	STAY	246	10.33	3.996	.255
	QUIT	42	10.31	4.027	.621
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	STAY	246	10.52	4.013	.256
	QUIT	42	10.19	3.915	.604
Friendly Congenial Associates	STAY	246	9.96	3.639	.232
	QUIT	42	9.38	3.920	.605
High Salary	STAY	246	6.24	4.459	.284
	QUIT	42	5.21	3.886	.600
High Prestige and Social Status	STAY	246	9.30	4.099	.261
	QUIT	42	9.14	4.141	.639
Opportunity for Advancement	STAY	246	6.67	3.710	.237
	QUIT	42	5.71	3.263	.504
Variety in Work Assignments	STAY	246	8.46	3.721	.237
	QUIT	42	9.71	4.038	.623
Working as Part of a Team	STAY	246	7.98	3.915	.250
	QUIT	42	7.81	4.133	.638

Table 10: Rank Order Comparisons of 15 Motivation Factors by Decision

Motivation Factor	Stay	Quit
Stable and Secure Future	1	1
Learn New Things	2	2
Experience Leisure Activities	11	13
Exercise Leadership	5	7
Special Abilities	6	6
Contribute to Important Decisions	10	8
Benefit Society	8	9
Freedom from Supervision	14	15
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	15	14
Friendly Congenial Associates	13	11
High Salary	3	3
High Prestige and Social Status	12	10
Opportunity for Advancement	4	4
Variety in Work Assignments	9	12
Working as Part of a Team	7	5

Relationships between Motivation Factors and Decision

Research Question: Does the motivation of recruits influence their decision to stay or quit the Navy Delayed Entry Program? To investigate this question, the data were analyzed and examined to explore measures of association using the Spearman correlation coefficient. This nonparametric statistical technique functions on the basis of the ranks of data, the ordinal data used in this study, and they do not need to be normally distributed. Spearman correlations were used to determine the strength and direction of the relationships between each of the 15 motivation factors and the decision to stay or quit. A correlation close to zero signified a weak relationship. Scores close to 1 or -1 represented strong relationships in either a positive or negative direction respectively.

H₁: Recruits who rank the chance to have a *Stable and Secure Future* high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low. Table 11 revealed practically no correlation ($r_s = -.057$) between wanting to have a *Stable and Secure Future* and deciding to stay in the Delayed Entry Program. The mean scores (m (stay) = 3.39 and m (quit) = 2.71) of this motivation factor and the fact that both groups ranked it first indicated that everyone in the sample placed high value on it, regardless of their decision to stay or quit the program. Therefore the hypothesis was not supported and having a chance to secure stable employment and future earnings had no bearing on the decision to stay or quit the Navy Delayed Entry Program.

Table 11: Relationship between *Stable and Secure Future* and Decision

Group Statistics					
Decision		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Stable and Secure Future	STAY	246	3.39	3.472	.221
	QUIT	42	2.71	2.690	.415

Correlations				
			Decision	Stable and Secure Future
Spearman's rho	Decision	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.057
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.168
		N	288	288
	Stable and Secure Future	Correlation Coefficient	-.057	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.168	.
		N	288	288

H₂: Recruits who rank a chance to *Learn New Things* high are more likely to stay in the Navy Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low. The Spearman correlation ($r_s = -.001$) as shown in Table 12 indicates practically no relationship between wanting a chance to *Learn New Things* and the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program. Recruits who ranked this motivation factor high were no more like to stay in the program than the recruits who did not rank it high. The fact is that Recruits who quit also ranked this motivation factor high. The stay group ($n = 246, m = 5.57$) ranked this factor second in terms of importance and the group that quit ($n = 42, m = 5.33$) also ranked it second of the list. However, having the chance to learn new things did not influence their decision to stay or quit the program.

Table 12: Relationship between *Learn New Things* and Decision

Group Statistics

	Decision	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Learn New Things	STAY	246	5.57	3.889	.248
	QUIT	42	5.33	3.476	.536

Correlations

			Decision	Learn New Things
Spearman's rho	Decision	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.001
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.492
		N	288	288
	Learn New Things	Correlation Coefficient	-.001	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.492	.
		N	288	288

H₃: Recruits who rank a chance to *Experience Leisure Activity* high are more likely to quit the Navy Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low. Table 13 displays the Spearman correlation ($r_s = .079$) which indicates practically no correlation between the desire to *Experience Leisure Activity* and the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program. Recruits in the stay group ($n = 246$, $m = 8.9$) ranked this factor 11th while the quit group ($n = 42$, $m = 9.79$) ranked it 13th in terms of importance, and neither group valued the opportunity to experience satisfying leisure activities, it had no bearing on their decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program.

Table 13: Relationship between *Experience Leisure Activities* and Decision

Group Statistics

	Decision	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experience	STAY	246	8.90	4.038	.257
Leisure Activities	QUIT	42	9.79	3.822	.590

Correlations

			Decision	Experience Leisure Activities
Spearman's rho	Decision	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.079
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.091
		N	288	288
	Experience Leisure Activities	Correlation Coefficient	.079	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.091	.
		N	288	288

H₄: Recruits who rank the chance to *Exercise Leadership* high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low. In Table 14 a Spearman correlation coefficient was calculated for the relationship between the chance to *Exercise Leadership* and the decision to stay or quit. Practically no correlation was found ($r_s = .080$). The stay group ($n = 246$, $m = 7.74$) ranked this motivation factor 5th in terms of relative importance and the quit group ($n = 42$, $m = 8.62$) gave it a 7th place ranking. Both ranks were high relative to the importance of other factors, but the chance to exercise leadership did not influence the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program.

Table 14: Relationship between *Exercise Leadership* and Decision

Group Statistics					
Decision		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Exercise Leadership	STAY	246	7.74	4.077	.260
	QUIT	42	8.62	3.748	.578

Correlations				
			Decision	Exercise Leadership
Spearman's rho	Decision	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.080
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.087
		N	288	288
	Exercise Leadership	Correlation Coefficient	.080	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.087	.
		N	288	288

H₅: Recruits who rank a chance to use *Special Abilities* high are more likely to quit the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low. A Spearman correlation coefficient, shown in Table 15 was calculated for the relationship between having a chance to use *Special Abilities* and the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program. An extremely weak correlation was found ($r_s = .038$). There is no relationship between having a chance to use special skills and abilities and the decision to stay or quit the program. This supports the lack of difference between the stay group ($n = 246$, $m = 7.75$) and the quit group ($n = 42$, $m = 8.24$) in the rank order placement of this factor. Both groups ranked this motivation factor 6th of 15 in terms of importance.

Table 15: Relationship between *Special Abilities* and Decision

Group Statistics

	Decision	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Special Abilities	STAY	246	7.75	3.938	.251
	QUIT	42	8.24	4.218	.651

Correlations

			Decision	Special Abilities
Spearman's rho	Decision	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.038
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.259
		N	288	288
	Special Abilities	Correlation Coefficient	.038	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.259	.
		N	288	288

H₆: Recruits who rank a chance to *Contribute to Important Decisions* high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low. Table 16 presents the Spearman correlation coefficient calculations ($r_s = .038$) for the relationship between having a chance to *Contribute to Important Decisions* and the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program. Practically no correlation exists indicating no relationship between the two. This is corroborated by the rankings of this motivation factor by the stay and quit groups. The stay group ($n = 246$, $m = 8.54$) ranked the opportunity to contribute to important decisions low in 10th place. The quit group ($n = 42$, $m = 9.00$) also ranked this factor low in 8th place. This motivation factor did not influence the decision to stay or quit the program.

Table 16: Relationship between *Contribute to Important Decisions* and Decision

Group Statistics

	Decision	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Contribute to Important Decisions	STAY	246	8.54	3.675	.234
	QUIT	42	9.00	3.676	.567

Correlations

			Decision	Contribute to Important Decisions
Spearman's rho	Decision	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.038
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.258
		N	288	288
	Contribute to Important Decisions	Correlation Coefficient	.038	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.258	.
		N	288	288

H₇: Recruits who rank the chance to *Benefit Society* high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low. The Spearman correlation coefficient ($r_s = .053$) that was calculated for the relationship between having a chance to *Benefit Society* and the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program is displayed in Table 17. There is practically no correlation between the two variables. The mean rankings ($m(\text{stay}) = 8.42$ and $m(\text{quit}) = 9.02$) for the stay ($n = 246$) and quit ($n = 42$) groups support the finding that having a chance to benefit society has no bearing on the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program. Recruits who stayed and those who quit ranked this motivation factor low, 8th and 9th respectively in terms of importance.

Table 17: Relationship between *Benefit Society* and Decision

Group Statistics

	Decision	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Benefit Society	STAY	246	8.42	3.921	.250
	QUIT	42	9.02	3.822	.590

Correlations

			Decision	Benefit Society
Spearman's rho	Decision	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.053
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.184
		N	288	288
	Benefit Society	Correlation Coefficient	.053	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.184	.
		N	288	288

H₈: Recruits who rank the chance to have *Freedom from Supervision* high are more likely to quit the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low. The Spearman correlation coefficient ($r_s = 0$) is displayed in Table 18 and indicated no relationship between wanting *Freedom from Supervision* and deciding to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program. The stay group ($n = 246$, $m = 10.33$) ranked this motivation factor 14th out of 15 while the quit group ($n = 42$, $m = 10.31$) ranked it last. Neither group was inspired to be free from supervision nor did it not influence their decision.

Table 18: Relationship between *Freedom from Supervision* and Decision

Group Statistics

	Decision	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Freedom from Supervision	STAY	246	10.33	3.996	.255
	QUIT	42	10.31	4.027	.621

Correlations

			Decision	Freedom from Supervision
Spearman's rho	Decision	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.499
		N	288	288
	Freedom from Supervision	Correlation Coefficient	.000	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.499	.
		N	288	288

H₉: Recruits who rank *Freedom from Pressure to Conform* high are more likely to quit the Navy Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low. Table 19 displays the Spearman correlation coefficient that was calculated for the relationship between wanting *Freedom from Pressure to Conform* and the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program. Practically no correlation was found ($r_s = -.032$). There is no relationship between the two. This finding is corroborated by the absent difference in preference for this factor between the stay ($n = 246$, $m = 10.52$) and quit ($n = 42$, $m = 10.19$) groups. Recruits who stayed in the program gave it the lowest ranking of 15, while Recruits who quit ranked it 14 of 15. The chance to work in an environment that is free from pressure to conform had no influence on the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program.

Table 19: Relationship between *Freedom from Pressure to Conform* and Decision

Group Statistics

	Decision	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Freedom from	STAY	246	10.52	4.013	.256
Pressure to Conform	QUIT	42	10.19	3.915	.604

Correlations

			Decision	Freedom from Pressure to Conform
Spearman's rho	Decision	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.032
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.294
		N	288	288
	Freedom from Pressure to Conform	Correlation Coefficient	-.032	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.294	.
		N	288	288

H₁₀: Recruits who rank a chance to have *Friendly and Congenial Associations* high are more likely to quit the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low. A Spearman correlation coefficient was calculated to determine the relationship between a chance to have *Friendly and Congenial Associations* and the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program as shown in Table 20. An extremely weak negative correlation was found ($r_s = -.049$). There is no relationship between the two. The mean rankings of the stay group ($n = 246$, $m = 9.96$) and the quit group ($n = 42$, $m = 9.38$) support this outcome. Both groups ranked this motivation factor low, 13th and 11th respectively. The opportunity to enjoy a friendly and congenial work environment did not influence recruits decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program.

Table 20: Relationship between *Friendly Congenial Associates* and Decision

Group Statistics					
Decision		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Friendly Congenial Associates	STAY	246	9.96	3.639	.232
	QUIT	42	9.38	3.920	.605

Correlations				
			Decision	Friendly Congenial Associates
Spearman's rho	Decision	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.049
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.204
		N	288	288
	Friendly Congenial Associates	Correlation Coefficient	-.049	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.204	.
		N	288	288

H₁₁: Recruits who rank the chance to earn a *High Salary* high are more likely to quit the Navy Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low. As shown in Table 21, a Spearman correlation coefficient ($r_s = -.086$) was calculated to determine the relationship between having a chance to earn a *High Salary* and the decision to stay or leave the Delayed Entry Program. There was practically no correlation between the two indicating that a *High Salary* is valued by recruits who stay and those who quit the program. The mean rankings of the stay group ($n = 246$, $m = 6.24$) and the quit group ($n = 42$, $m = 5.21$) support this result. Both groups ranked the chance to earn a high salary 3rd of 15 motivation factors in terms of importance. Thus, this motivation factor did not influence the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program.

Table 21: Relationship between *High Salary* and Decision

Group Statistics					
Decision		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
High Salary	STAY	246	6.24	4.459	.284
	QUIT	42	5.21	3.886	.600

Correlations				
			Decision	High Salary
Spearman's rho	Decision	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.086
		Sig. (1-tailed)		.073
		N	288	288
	High Salary	Correlation Coefficient	-.086	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.073	
		N	288	288

H₁₂: Recruits who rank a chance to have *High Prestige and Social Status* high are more likely to quit the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low. A Spearman correlation coefficient ($r_s = -.013$) was calculated for the relationship between a chance to have *High Prestige and Social Status* and the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program as shown in Table 22. In essence, there is no relationship between the two variables. This is supported by comparing the mean rankings of the stay group ($n = 246$, $m = 9.30$) and the quit group ($n = 42$, $m = 9.14$). Both groups place low importance on this motivation factor with the stay group ranking it 12th and the quit group ranking it 10th of the 15 motivation factors. The chance to obtain a prestigious social status had no influence on the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program.

Table 22: Relationship between *High Prestige and Social Status* and Decision

Group Statistics

	Decision	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
High Prestige and Social Status	STAY	246	9.30	4.099	.261
	QUIT	42	9.14	4.141	.639

Correlations

			Decision	High Prestige and Social Status
Spearman's rho	Decision	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.013
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.416
		N	288	288
	High Prestige and Social Status	Correlation Coefficient	-.013	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.416	.
		N	288	288

H₁₃: Recruits who rank *Opportunity for Advancement* high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low. Table 23 displays the Spearman correlation coefficient test to determine the relationship between having an *Opportunity for Advancement* and the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program. Practically no relationship was found ($r_s = -.086$) indicating that the opportunity to advance in the workplace did not influence the decision to stay or quit the program. This result is supported by an examination of the mean rankings of the two groups. The stay group ($n = 246$, $m = 6.67$) ranked this motivation factor high in 4th place. The quit group ($n = 42$, $m = 5.71$) also ranked it high in 4th place. Thus, whether recruits stayed in the program and proceeded to basic training or they quit the program, they considered the *Opportunity for Advancement* to be important.

Table 23: Relationship between *Opportunity for Advancement* and Decision

Group Statistics

	Decision	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Opportunity for Advancement	STAY	246	6.67	3.710	.237
	QUIT	42	5.71	3.263	.504

Correlations

			Decision	Opportunity for Advancement
Spearman's rho	Decision	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.086
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.073
		N	288	288
	Opportunity for Advancement	Correlation Coefficient	-.086	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.073	.
		N	288	288

H₁₄: Recruits who rank a chance to have *Variety in Work Assignments* high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than recruits who rank it low. Table 24 displays the Spearman correlation coefficient calculated for the relationship between having *Variety in Work Assignments* and the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program. Practically no correlation was found ($r_s = .109$) which indicates that this motivation factors has very little influence on the decision to stay or quit. An examination of the mean rankings of the stay group ($n = 246$, $m = 8.46$) and the quit group ($n = 42$, $m = 9.71$) supports this result. Both groups ranked this motivation factor high, 7th place for the stay group and 5th place for the quit group. Having variety in job assignments did not drive the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program.

Table 24: Relationship between *Variety in Work Assignments* and Decision

Group Statistics

	Decision	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Variety in Work	STAY	246	8.46	3.721	.237
Assignments	QUIT	42	9.71	4.038	.623

Correlations

			Decision	Variety in Work Assignments
Spearman's rho	Decision	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.109*
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.032
		N	288	288
	Variety in Work Assignments	Correlation Coefficient	.109*	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.032	.
		N	288	288

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

H₁₅: Recruits who rank *Working as Part of a Team* high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than recruits rank it low. As displayed in Table 25, a Spearman correlation coefficient was calculated for the relationship between *Working as Part of a Team* and the decision to stay or quit the program. Practically no correlation ($r_s = .019$) was found indicating that this motivation factor had no influence on the decision to stay or quit. This result is corroborated by a comparison of the mean rankings for the stay group ($n = 246$, $m = 7.98$) and the quit group ($n = 42$, $m = 7.81$) which indicate no difference. The stay group ranked this factor high in 7th place and did the quit group who ranked it in 5th place. Recruits who stayed in the program and recruits who quit the program considered being able to work as part of a team to be important.

Table 25: Relationship between *Working as Part of a Team* and Decision

Group Statistics

	Decision	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Working as	STAY	246	7.98	3.915	.250
Part of a Team	QUIT	42	7.81	4.133	.638

Correlations

			Decision	Working as Part of a Team
Spearman's rho	Decision	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.019
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.376
		N	288	288
	Working as Part of a Team	Correlation Coefficient	-.019	1.000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.376	.
		N	288	288

Following are the analyses performed to examine group differences relative to gender, race and education. Four general hypotheses were used to test the assumptions in this study.

Mean Ranks of 15 Motivation Factors by Gender

There were 231 males in the sample under study. Mean scores for males were high on the following motivation factors: *Stable and Secure Future* ($m = 3.29$); *Learn New Things* ($m = 5.55$); *High Salary* ($m = 6.16$); and *Opportunity for Advancement* ($m = 6.45$). When the mean ranks of males were placed in order of importance, as seen in Table 26A, males ranked the following motivation factors high: *Stable and Secure Future* (1), *Learn New Things* (2), *High Salary* (3), *Opportunity for Advancement* (4), *Special Abilities* (5), and *Working as Part of a Team* (6). Males in the sample gave low relative rankings to the following motivation factors: *Benefit Society and Variety in Work Assignment* (9), *Contribute to Important Decisions* (10), *Experience Leisure Activities* (11), *High Prestige and Social Status* (12), *Friendly and Congenial Associates* (13), *Freedom from Pressure to Conform* (14), and *Freedom from Supervision* (15).

Table 26A: Mean Rankings of 15 Motivation Factors for Males: N = 231

MOTIVATION FACTORS	Rank	Mean	Std. Deviation
Stable and Secure Future	1	3.29	3.73
Learn New Things	2	5.55	3.98
Experience Leisure Activities	11	9.03	4.09
Exercise Leadership	7	8.05	4.18
Special Abilities	5	7.72	4.00
Contribute to Important Decisions	10	8.65	3.55
Benefit Society	8	8.55	3.99
Freedom from Supervision	15	10.39	4.24
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	14	10.38	3.91
Friendly Congenial Associates	13	10.00	3.93
High Salary	3	6.16	4.39
High Prestige and Social Status	12	9.22	3.99
Opportunity for Advancement	4	6.45	3.12
Variety in Work Assignments	8	8.55	3.19
Working as Part of a Team	6	7.84	4.11

H₁₆: Male recruits who rank the following motivation factors high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than males who rank them low: a) *Stable and Secure Future*, b) *Opportunity for Advancement*, c) *High Salary*, d) *High Prestige and Social Status*, e) *Exercise Leadership*, and f) *Contribute to Important Decisions*.

Table 26B depicts the mean differences for males who stayed in the Delayed Entry Program and those who quit. The variables listed have been shown in previous research to be important job characteristics for men. Males who stayed did give high

ranks to *Stable and Secure Future* ($m = 2.81$), *Opportunity for Advancement* ($m = 5.50$), and *High Salary* ($m = 5.22$). However, males who quit also gave high ranks to these motivators. The desire to have *High Prestige and Social Status*, *Exercise Leadership*, and *Contribute to Important Decisions* was not supported as factors important to the males in this sample. The hypothesis that these variables would influence the decision of males to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program was not supported.

Table 26B: Mean Scores for Males Who Stay and Quit

	Males Who Stayed N = 81 Mean	Males Who Quit N = 32 Mean
Stable and Secure Future	3.36	2.81
Opportunity for Advancement	6.60	5.50
High Prestige and Social Status	9.29	8.78
High Salary	5.91	5.22
Exercise Leadership	7.96	8.59
Contribute to Important Decisions	8.54	9.31

The mean scores for females were calculated and then ranked in order of importance (Table 27A). Females ranked the following motivation factors as high: *Stable and Secure Future* ($m = 3.33$); *Learn New Things* ($m = 5.49$); *High Salary* ($m = 5.79$); and *Opportunity for Advancement* ($m = 6.89$). When the mean scores were used to establish rank order, females placed high value on the following 7 motivation factors:

Stable and Secure Future (1), Learn New Things (2), High Salary (3), Opportunity for Advancement (4), Exercise Leadership (5), Special Abilities (6), and Benefit Society (7).

Females placed less importance on the motivation factors falling in the low category. They gave low ranks to *Working as Part of a Team (8), Contribute to Important Decisions (9), Variety in Work Assignment (10), Experience Leisure Activities (11), Friendly Congenial Associates (12), High Prestige and Social Status (13), Freedom from Supervision (14), and Freedom from Pressure to Conform (15).*

Table 27A: Mean Rankings of 15 Motivation Factors for Females: N= 57

MOTIVATION FACTORS	Rank	Mean	Std. Deviation
Stable and Secure Future	1	3.33	3.73
Learn New Things	2	5.49	3.98
Experience Leisure Activities	11	9.04	4.09
Exercise Leadership	5	7.14	4.18
Special Abilities	6	8.21	4.00
Contribute to Important Decisions	9	8.44	3.56
Benefit Society	7	8.33	3.99
Freedom from Supervision	14	10.05	4.24
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	15	10.86	3.91
Friendly Congenial Associates	12	9.39	3.93
High Salary	3	5.79	4.39
High Prestige and Social Status	13	9.51	3.99
Opportunity for Advancement	4	6.89	3.12
Variety in Work Assignments	10	9.00	3.19
Working as Part of a Team	8	8.39	4.11

H₁₇: Female recruits who rank the following motivation factors high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than females who rank them low: a) *Stable and Secure Future*, b) *Learn New Things*, c) *Opportunity for Advancement*, d) *Benefit Society*, e) *Working as Part of a Team*, f) *High Salary*, and g) *Friendly and Congenial Associates*.

Table 27B: Mean Scores for Females Who Stay and Quit

	Females Who Stayed N = 47 Mean	Females Who Quit N = 10 Mean
Stable and Secure Future	3.53	2.40
Learn New Things	6.11	2.60
Opportunity for Advancement	7.00	6.40
Benefit Society	8.32	8.40
Working as Part of a Team	8.32	8.70
High Salary	5.91	5.20
Friendly and Congenial Associates	9.60	8.40

As shown in Table 27A, females who stayed in the Delayed Entry Program ranked *Stable and Secure Future* ($m = 3.53$), *Learn New Things* ($m = 6.11$), *Opportunity for Advancement* ($m = 7.00$), and *High Salary* ($m = 5.91$) high. So did the females who quit. These motivation factors did not influence the decision to stay or quit the program. Additionally, females in this sample did not show a preference for the chance to *Benefit*

Society, Work as Part of a Team, or having *Friendly and Congenial Associates*, as would have been expected based on prior research. The hypothesis was not supported.

Using means to establish rank order, as shown in Tables 28 and 29, males and females overall were similar in their preferences. They differed, however, on *Chance to Benefit Society* and *Working as Part of a Team*.

Table 28: Mean Score Comparisons of 15 Motivation Factors by Gender

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Stable and Secure Future	MALE	231	3.29	3.286	.216
	FEMALE	57	3.33	3.738	.495
Learn New Things	MALE	231	5.55	3.797	.250
	FEMALE	57	5.49	3.983	.528
Experience Leisure Activities	MALE	231	9.03	4.001	.263
	FEMALE	57	9.04	4.097	.543
Exercise Leadership	MALE	231	8.05	3.988	.262
	FEMALE	57	7.14	4.185	.554
Special Abilities	MALE	231	7.72	3.972	.261
	FEMALE	57	8.21	4.008	.531
Contribute to Important Decisions	MALE	231	8.65	3.707	.244
	FEMALE	57	8.44	3.556	.471
Benefit Society	MALE	231	8.55	3.892	.256
	FEMALE	57	8.33	3.993	.529
Freedom from Supervision	MALE	231	10.39	3.937	.259
	FEMALE	57	10.05	4.240	.562
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	MALE	231	10.38	4.015	.264
	FEMALE	57	10.86	3.916	.519
Friendly Congenial Associates	MALE	231	10.00	3.615	.238
	FEMALE	57	9.39	3.927	.520
High Salary	MALE	231	6.16	4.394	.289
	FEMALE	57	5.79	4.395	.582
High Prestige and Social Status	MALE	231	9.22	4.130	.272
	FEMALE	57	9.51	3.996	.529
Opportunity for Advancement	MALE	231	6.45	3.780	.249
	FEMALE	57	6.89	3.121	.413
Variety in Work Assignments	MALE	231	8.55	3.923	.258
	FEMALE	57	9.00	3.190	.423
Working as Part of a Team	MALE	231	7.84	3.899	.257
	FEMALE	57	8.39	4.113	.545

While it did not influence their decision to stay or quit, females did rank a chance to *Benefit Society* seventh of the 15 motivation factors, which is considered high. Males ranked it 10th (low). On the other hand, males considered the chance to *Work as Part of a Team* more important than other factors. Males ranked this motivation factor sixth of 15, which is high. Females ranked it eighth (low) of the 15 motivation factors. Relatively speaking, while females cared more about benefiting society, the males considered it more important to be a part of a team, which would appear to be inconsistent with relevant literature.

Table 29: Rank Order of 15 Motivation Factors by Gender

Motivation Factor	Male	Female
Stable and Secure Future	1	1
Learn New Things	2	2
Experience Leisure Activities	11	11
Exercise Leadership	7	5
Special Abilities	5	6
Contribute to Important Decisions	10	9
Benefit Society	8	7
Freedom from Supervision	15	14
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	14	15
Friendly Congenial Associates	13	12
High Salary	3	3
High Prestige and Social Status	12	13
Opportunity for Advancement	4	4
Variety in Work Assignments	9	10
Working as Part of a Team	6	8

Mean Ranks of 15 Motivation Factors by Race

The data were examined to ascertain the relative importance of the motivation factors to each race. Like gender, the means ranks for each group were calculated and then ranked in order of importance. Caucasians comprised the largest racial subgroup and their mean scores are reflected in Table 30. Based on mean scores, Caucasians ranked the following motivators as high: *Stable and Secure Future* ($m=3.27$); *Learn New Things* ($m=5.56$); and *Opportunity for Advancement* ($m=6.39$).

In terms of the rank order established on the basis of mean scores, motivators ranked high are as follows: the chance to have *Stable and Secure Future* (1), *Learn New Things* (2), and *Opportunity for Advancement* which was ranked the same as *High Salary* (3). Of less importance to the Caucasian group were the following factors in order of rankings: the chance to *Benefit Society* (8), *Variety in Work Assignments* (9), *Contribute to Important Decisions* (10), *Experience Leisure Activities* (11), to have *Friendly Congenial Associates* (12), *Freedom from Pressure to Conform* (13), *Freedom from Supervision* (14), and *High Prestige and Social Status* (15).

The mean rankings of the motivation factors by Black participants were calculated and placed in order of importance to them (Table 31). The mean scores of Black participants revealed the following factors as high: *Stable and Secure Future* ($m=3.17$), *High Salary* ($m=4.50$) and *Learn New Things* ($m=5.31$). In the rank order of mean scores, motivators considered high were the chance to have a *Stable and Secure Future* (1), *High Salary* (2), and *Learn New Things* (3), *Opportunity for Advancement* (4) and *Special Abilities* (5). Ranked in sixth place were both the chance to *Experience Leisure Activities* and have *High Prestige and Social Status*. Considered less important to Blacks

in the sample were *Contribute to Important Decisions* (8), *Variety in Work Assignments* (9), *Working as Part of a Team* (10), *Benefit Society* (11), *Exercise Leadership* (12), *Freedom from Supervision* (13), *Friendly Congenial Associates* (14), and *Freedom from Pressure to Conform* (15). Overall results for Black participants supported hypotheses 18a, b, c, d, and g. Blacks did not place on high value on having friendly and congenial associates or working as part of a team.

Table 30: Mean Rankings of 15 Motivation Factors for Caucasians: N = 209

MOTIVATION FACTORS	Rank	Mean	Std. Deviation
Stable and Secure Future	1	3.27	3.44
Learn New Things	2	5.56	3.82
Experience Leisure Activities	11	8.99	4.06
Exercise Leadership	6	7.67	3.98
Special Abilities	5	7.62	4.11
Contribute to Important Decisions	10	8.51	3.67
Benefit Society	8	8.44	3.89
Freedom from Supervision	14	10.54	3.85
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	13	10.49	4.13
Friendly Congenial Associates	12	9.97	3.49
High Salary	3	6.39	4.45
High Prestige and Social Status	15	9.48	3.86
Opportunity for Advancement	3	6.39	3.67
Variety in Work Assignments	9	8.65	3.71
Working as Part of a Team	7	7.78	3.90

Results for Hispanic participants are shown in Table 32. Hispanics were motivated by *Stable and Secure Future* ($m = 4.18$), *High Salary* ($m = 5.55$), and *Learn New Things* ($m = 6.00$). In terms of rank order importance, the top three factors according to mean scores were also the top three factors in rank. *Opportunity for Advancement* was 4th. Like Caucasians, they placed high relative importance on the chance to *Exercise Leadership* (5) and like Blacks, they considered the chance to have *High Prestige and Social Status* (7) important. Unlike Caucasians and Blacks, Hispanics considered the chance to use *Special Abilities* (8) as less important. Equally low ranks were given to *Contribute to Important Decisions and Benefit Society* (9). Like most in the sample, the chance to have *Freedom from Supervision* (11) and *Freedom from Pressure to Conform* (14) were not seen as important to Hispanics. Nor were they concerned with having a chance to *Experience Leisure Activities* (12), *Variety in Work Assignments* (13), or *Friendly Congenial Associates* (15). Hypotheses 18a, b, c, d and g were supported in this analysis. Like Black participants, Hispanics did not consider the chance to have friendly associates and work as part of a team to be important.

Table 31: Mean Rankings of 15 Motivation Factors for Blacks: N = 42

MOTIVATION FACTORS	Rank	Mean	Std. Deviation
Stable and Secure Future	1	3.17	3.06
Learn New Things	3	5.31	3.72
Experience Leisure Activities	6	8.57	4.22
Exercise Leadership	12	9.33	4.18
Special Abilities	5	8.26	3.67
Contribute to Important Decisions	8	8.64	4.04
Benefit Society	11	9.02	4.02
Freedom from Supervision	13	9.43	4.37
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	15	10.57	3.27
Friendly Congenial Associates	14	9.64	4.30
High Salary	2	4.50	3.48
High Prestige and Social Status	6	8.57	4.45
Opportunity for Advancement	4	7.36	3.33
Variety in Work Assignments	9	8.67	4.1
Working as Part of a Team	10	8.88	3.83

Table 32: Mean Rankings of 15 Motivation Factors for Hispanics: N = 22

MOTIVATION FACTORS	Rank	Mean	Std. Deviation
Stable and Secure Future	1	4.18	3.30
Learn New Things	3	6.00	4.34
Experience Leisure Activities	12	9.05	3.34
Exercise Leadership	5	7.64	4.11
Special Abilities	8	8.59	3.77
Contribute to Important Decisions	9	8.86	2.88
Benefit Society	9	8.86	4.12
Freedom from Supervision	11	9.00	4.40
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	14	9.64	4.43
Friendly Congenial Associates	15	10.00	3.59
High Salary	2	5.55	4.77
High Prestige and Social Status	7	8.27	5.09
Opportunity for Advancement	4	7.00	4.34
Variety in Work Assignments	13	9.50	4.21
Working as Part of a Team	6	7.95	4.12

Table 33 displays mean scores and rank order for the motivation of Asian participants. High mean scores resulted from *Stable and Secure Future* ($m = 2.73$); *Learn New Things* ($m = 5.07$); and *Opportunity for Advancement* (5.53). The Asian respondents were the only group to give the chance to *Benefit Society* (7) a high rank order. Like the others, they considered a *Stable and Secure Future* (1), *Learn New Things* (2) and *Opportunity for Advancement* (3) important motivation factors, which supported hypotheses 18a, b and c. Like Caucasians and Hispanics, Asian saw the chance to *Exercise Leadership* (4) as important. While they also ranked *High Salary* (5)

high, supporting hypothesis 18g, it was not in the top three factors like the other races. Also, unlike the others, Asians place a high value on the chance to *Work in a Variety of Assignments* (6). Factors that ranked lower in terms of importance to Asians were *Working as Part of a Team* (8), the chance to use *Special Abilities* (9), to have *Friendly Congenial Associates* (10), *Contribute to Important Decisions* (11), *High Prestige and Social Status* (12), *Experience Leisure Activities* (13), *Freedom from Supervision* (15) and *Freedom from Pressures to Conform* (14).

Table 33: Mean Rankings of 15 Motivation Factors for Asians: N = 15

MOTIVATION FACTORS	Rank	Mean	Std. Deviation
Stable and Secure Future	1	2.73	3.39
Learn New Things	2	5.07	3.69
Experience Leisure Activities	13	10.80	3.38
Exercise Leadership	4	7.00	3.66
Special Abilities	9	8.27	2.98
Contribute to Important Decisions	11	9.40	3.81
Benefit Society	7	7.53	3.58
Freedom from Supervision	15	11.80	3.55
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	14	11.27	3.24
Friendly Congenial Associates	10	9.07	4.59
High Salary	5	7.07	4.48
High Prestige and Social Status	12	9.80	4.60
Opportunity for Advancement	3	5.53	3.02
Variety in Work Assignments	6	7.13	3.06
Working as Part of a Team	8	7.73	4.44

All races placed equal relative value (high) on *Stable and Secure Future*, *Learn New Things*, *High Salary* and *Opportunity for Advancement* (Tables 34 and 35) which collectively supported hypotheses 18a, b, c, and g. Likewise, all races placed low relative value on *Contribute to Important Decisions*, *Freedom from Supervision*, *Freedom from Pressure to Conform* and *Friendly Congenial Associates*. Blacks considered the chance to *Experience Leisure Activities* a motivator whereas Caucasian, Hispanic and Asian respondents did not. Both Caucasian and Black respondents believed the chance to use *Special Abilities* was important, while Hispanic and Asian recruits ranked it low. On the chance to *Benefit Society* and have *Variety in Work Assignments*, Asian participants singularly gave them high value, while all others did not see the two motivation factors as important. *High Prestige and Social Status* was of high importance to Black and Hispanic recruits and of little value importance to Caucasian and Asian recruits. The chance to *Work as Part of a Team* was a motivator to Caucasian and Hispanic recruits, while Black and Asian participants saw it as less important.

Table 34: Mean Score Comparisons of 15 Motivation Factors by Race

	Caucasian		Black		Hispanic		Asian		Total	
	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean	N	Mean
Stable and Secure Future	209	3.27	42	3.17	22	4.18	15	2.73	288	3.30
Learn New Things	209	5.56	42	5.31	22	6.00	15	5.07	288	5.53
Experience Leisure Activities	209	8.99	42	8.57	22	9.05	15	10.80	288	9.03
Exercise Leadership	209	7.67	42	9.33	22	7.64	15	7.00	288	7.87
Special Abilities	209	7.62	42	8.26	22	8.59		8.27	288	7.82
Contribute to Important Decisions	209	8.51	42	8.64	22	8.86	15	9.40	288	8.60
Benefit Society	209	8.44	42	9.02	22	8.86	15	7.53	288	8.51
Freedom from Supervision	209	10.54	42	9.43	22	9.00	15	11.80	288	10.32
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	209	10.49	42	10.57	22	9.64	15	11.27	288	10.48
Friendly Congenial Associates	209	9.97	42	9.64	22	10.00	15	9.07	288	9.88
High Salary	209	6.39	42	4.50	22	5.55	15	7.07	288	6.09
High Prestige and Social Status	209	9.48	42	8.57	22	8.27	15	9.80	288	9.27
Opportunity for Advancement	209	6.39	42	7.36	22	7.00	15	5.53	288	6.53
Variety in Work Assignments	209	8.65	42	8.67	22	9.50	15	7.13	288	8.64
Work as Part of a Team	209	7.78	42	8.88	22	7.95	15	7.73	288	7.95

Table 35: The Rank Order Comparison of 15 Motivation Factors by Race

Motivation Factor	Caucasian	Black	Hispanic	Asian
Stable and Secure Future	1	1	1	1
Learn New Things	2	3	3	2
Experience Leisure Activities	11	6	12	13
Exercise Leadership	6	12	5	4
Special Abilities	5	5	8	9
Contribute to Important Decisions	10	8	9	11
Benefit Society	8	11	9	7
Freedom from Supervision	14	13	11	15
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	13	15	14	14
Friendly Congenial Associates	12	14	15	10
High Salary	3	2	2	5
High Prestige and Social Status	15	6	7	12
Opportunity for Advancement	3	4	4	3
Variety in Work Assignments	9	9	13	6
Working as Part of a Team	7	10	6	8

H₁₈: Minority recruits who rank the following motivation factors high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than minorities who rank them low: a) *Stable and Secure Future*, b) *Learn New Things*, c) *Opportunity for Advancement*, d) *High Prestige and Social Status*, e) *Friendly and Congenial Associates*, f) *Working as Part of A Team* and g) *High Salary*.

Table 35A displays the mean ranks of the motivation factors by both race and decision to stay or quit the program. For Blacks, those who quit ranked high *Stable and Secure Future* ($m = 3.21$), *Learn New Things* ($m = 5.55$), and *High Salary* ($m = 4.52$). However, the Blacks who quit also ranked those three motivation factors high. Neither the Blacks who stayed nor the ones who quit gave a high mean rank to *High Prestige and Social Status*, *Friendly and Congenial Associates* or *Working as Part of a Team*. These

particular motivation factors did not influence the decision of Blacks to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program.

Mean scores for Hispanics are also displayed in Table 35A. Hispanics who stayed in the program gave high ranks to *Stable and Secure Future* ($m = 3.68$), *Learn New Things* ($m = 5.16$), and *High Salary* ($m = 6.11$). Hispanics who quit also gave high ranks to *Opportunity for Advancement* ($m = 7.00$), *High Salary* ($m = 2.00$), and *Working as Part of a Team* ($m = 7.00$). Hispanics who quit ranked *Learn New Things* low, which supported hypothesis 18b. Also, contrary to hypothesis 18f, Hispanics who quit actually ranked *Working as Part of a Team* high whereas those who quit ranked it low. Additionally, Hispanics who quit ranked *High Prestige and Social Status* high, which was generally expected of people who quit the program, but thought to be of importance to minority public servants in particular. Hispanics in neither group place high value on having *Friendly and Congenial Associates*. With the exception of *Learn New Things*, Hispanics did not confirm the hypothesis.

Asian respondents who stayed in the Delayed Entry Program gave high ranks to *Stable and Secure Future* ($m = 2.86$), *Learn New Things* ($m = 5.21$), *Opportunity for Advancement* ($m = 5.43$), and *High Salary* ($m = 6.79$). Likewise, Asians who quit the program ranked *the same four motivation factors high*. Neither group placed high value on *Working as Part of a Team*, *Friendly and Congenial Associates*, nor *High Prestige and Social Status*. For Asians, the motivation factors did not influence the decision to stay or quit. The general hypothesis was not supported by this group.

Table 35A: Mean Scores of Motivation Factors for Blacks, Hispanics and Asians Who Stay and Quit

	Minorities Who Stay N = 66			Minorities Who Quit N = 30		
	Means			Means		
	Black N=33	Hispanic N=19	Asian N=14	Black N=21	Hispanic N=7	Asian N=2
Stable and Secure Future	3.21	3.68	2.86	3.00	7.33	2.21
Learn New Things	5.55	5.16	5.21	4.44	11.33	5.07
Opportunity for Advancement	7.03	7.00	5.43	8.56	7.00	4.66
High Prestige and Social Status	8.30	8.63	9.43	9.56	6.00	9.14
High Salary	4.52	6.11	6.79	4.44	2.00	5.59
Friendly and Congenial Associates	10.27	9.89	9.00	7.33	10.67	9.86
Working as a Part of a Team	8.85	8.11	8.14	9.00	7.00	7.72

Table 35B presents mean scores for minorities in the aggregate. As a collective group, minorities who stayed in the Delayed Entry Program ranked *Stable and Secure Future* ($m = 3.25$), *Learn New Things* ($m = 5.30$), *Opportunity for Advancement* ($m = 6.48$) and *High Salary* ($m = 5.81$). Minorities who quit ranked the same four motivation factors high. These motivators did not influence the decision of minorities to stay or quit the program. Neither of the groups ranked *High Prestige and Social Status*, *Friendly and Congenial Associates*, nor *Working as Part of a Team* high.

Table 35B: Mean Scores of Motivation Factors for Minorities

	Minorities Who Stay N=66	Minorities Who Quit N=30
Stable and Secure Future	3.25	4.18
Learn New Things	5.30	6.94
Opportunity for Advancement	6.48	6.74
High Prestige and Social Status	8.78	8.23
High Salary	5.81	4.01
Friendly and Congenial Associates	9.72	9.28
Working as Part of a Team	8.36	7.90

Mean Ranks of 15 Motivation Factors by Education

Analysis was done to explore the motivation preferences by educational background. Table 36A displays mean ranks and relative importance of the 15 motivation factors to those recruits who did not graduate from high school. The chance to have a *Stable and Secure Future* (1) and *Learn New Things* (2) were of most importance to high school dropouts, which supported hypotheses 19a and b. Equally ranked in third place were the chance to *Exercise Leadership* and use *Special Abilities*, representing results that were not assumed.

Of less importance to the recruits who did not graduate from high school were the following motivation factors: the chance to *Benefit Society* (8), *Working as Part of a Team* (9), *Variety in Work Assignments* (10), the chance to *Experience Leisure Activities* (11), *Freedom from Pressure to Conform* (12), *High Prestige and Social Status* (13), *Friendly Congenial Associates* (14) and *Freedom from Supervision* (15).

Table 36A: Mean Rankings of 15 Motivation Factors for Non-high School Graduates: N=23

MOTIVATION FACTORS	Rank	Mean	Std. Deviation
Stable and Secure Future	1	4.52	3.82
Learn New Things	2	6.17	4.11
Experience Leisure Activities	11	9.13	3.95
Exercise Leadership	3	6.57	3.55
Special Abilities	3	6.57	4.63
Contribute to Important Decisions	5	6.87	3.88
Benefit Society	8	8.70	4.21
Freedom from Supervision	15	10.83	3.31
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	12	9.30	4.57
Friendly Congenial Associates	14	9.57	3.75
High Salary	6	6.91	4.87
High Prestige and Social Status	13	9.43	4.98
Opportunity for Advancement	7	7.04	3.84
Variety in Work Assignments	10	9.04	3.50
Working as Part of a Team	9	8.91	3.82

H₁₉: Recruits who did not graduate high school who rank the following motivation factors high are more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than those who rank them low: a) *Stable and Secure Future*, b) *Learn New Things*, c) *Opportunity for Advancement*, d) *High Prestige and Social Status*, e) *High Salary*, and f) *Contribute to Important Decisions*.

Table 36B: Mean Scores of Motivation Factors for Non-high School Graduates

	Non-high School Graduates Who Stay N=20	Non-High School Graduates Who Quit N=7
Stable and Secure Future	4.50	4.67
Learn New Things	5.75	9.00
Opportunity for Advancement	7.55	3.67
High Prestige and Social Status	9.40	9.67
High Salary	7.30	4.33
Contribute to Important Decisions	6.95	6.33

As shown in Table 36B, recruits who did not graduate from high school and stayed in the Delayed Entry Program gave high ranks to *Stable and Secure Future* ($m = 4.50$), *Learn New Things* ($m = 5.75$), and *Contribute to Important Decisions* ($m = 6.95$). They did not place high value on *Opportunity for Advancement* ($m = 7.55$) and *High Salary* ($m = 7.30$) as hypothesized. Non-high school graduates who quit the program also ranked *Stable and Secure Future* ($m = 4.67$) and *Contribute to Important Decisions* ($m = 6.33$) high. Supporting hypothesis 19b, high school dropouts who quit the program ranked *Learn New Things* ($m = 9.00$) low. Contrary to hypotheses 19c and 19e, non-high school graduates who quit ranked *Opportunity for Advancement* ($m = 3.67$) and *High Salary* ($m = 4.33$) high. Neither of the groups showed preference for having *High Prestige and Social Status* (m (stay) = 9.40; m (quit) = 9.67). With the exception of a chance to *Learn New Things*, these motivation factors did not appear to influence the decision of high school dropouts to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program.

Most of the participants (92%) in this study have obtained high school diplomas. Table 37 displays the mean rankings and rank order of the 15 motivation factors by high school graduates. The top four motivation factors for this group were the chance to have a *Stable and Secure Future* (1), *Learn New Things* (2), *High Salary* (3) and *Opportunity for Advancement* (4).

Table 37: Mean Rankings of 15 Motivation Factors for High School Graduates: N = 252

MOTIVATION FACTORS	Rank	Mean	Std. Deviation
Stable and Secure Future	1	3.26	3.37
Learn New Things	2	5.58	3.81
Experience Leisure Activities	11	8.92	3.99
Exercise Leadership	7	8.02	4.08
Special Abilities	6	7.92	3.91
Contribute to Important Decisions	10	8.77	3.67
Benefit Society	8	8.53	3.87
Freedom from Supervision	14	10.20	4.06
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	15	10.58	3.88
Friendly Congenial Associates	13	9.84	3.70
High Salary	3	6.03	4.41
High Prestige and Social Status	12	9.28	4.01
Opportunity for Advancement	4	6.48	3.66
Variety in Work Assignments	9	8.56	3.84
Working as Part of a Team	5	7.84	3.99

High school graduates did not place high value on the chance to *Benefit Society* (8), *Work in a Variety of Assignments* (9), *Contribute to Important Decisions* (10), or *Experience Leisure Activities* (11). They considered *High Prestige and Social Status* (12), *Friendly Congenial Associates* (13), *Freedom from Supervision* (14), and *Freedom from Pressure to Conform* (15) even less important.

For those participants who had at least some formal college experience, there were similarities in motivational preferences (see Table 38). Again, the chance to have a *Stable and Secure Future* (1), *Learn New Things* (2), *High Salary* (3), and *Opportunity for Advancement* (4) were all considered important.

However, the chance to *Contribute to Important Decisions* (9), to have *High Prestige and Social Status* (10), *Variety in Work Assignments* ($m = 9.46$), *Freedom from Pressure to Conform* (12), *Experience Leisure Activities* (13), to have *Friendly and Congenial Associates* (14), and *Freedom from Supervision* (15) were not seen as important to recruits with at least some college experience.

As shown in Tables 39 and 40, non-high school graduates, high school graduates and those recruits with some college experience placed relatively high importance on *Stable and Secure Future*, *Learn New Things*, *Exercise Leadership*, *Special Abilities*, *High Salary*, and *Opportunity for Advancement*. Each subgroup placed low importance on *Experience Leisure Activities*, *Freedom from Supervision*, *Freedom from Pressure to Conform*, *Friendly and Congenial Associates*, *High Prestige and Social Status*, and *Variety in Work Assignments*. Non-high school graduates found a chance to *Contribute to Important Decisions* to be a motivator while high school graduates and recruits with college experience ranked this factor low. Those with college experience place higher

relative importance on a chance to *Benefit Society* than the other two groups. *Working as Part of a Team* was more important to high school graduates than non-high school graduates and those with college experience.

Table 38: Mean Rankings of 15 Motivation Factors for College Experience: N = 13

MOTIVATION FACTORS	Rank	Mean	Std. Deviation
Stable and Secure Future	1	1.77	1.16
Learn New Things	2	3.62	3.20
Experience Leisure Activities	13	10.85	4.31
Exercise Leadership	5	7.23	3.67
Special Abilities	7	8.15	3.80
Contribute to Important Decisions	9	8.54	2.60
Benefit Society	6	7.77	4.24
Freedom from Supervision	15	11.77	3.58
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	12	10.54	4.90
Friendly Congenial Associates	14	11.08	3.04
High Salary	3	5.69	2.81
High Prestige and Social Status	10	8.85	4.41
Opportunity for Advancement	4	6.62	3.50
Variety in Work Assignments	11	9.46	3.23
Working as Part of a Team	8	8.46	2.98

Table 39: The Mean Score Comparisons of 15 Motivation Factors by Education**Report**

	Education											
	Non-High School Graduate			High School Graduate			College Experience			Total		
	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Stable and Secure Future	4.52	23	3.824	3.26	252	3.377	1.77	13	1.166	3.30	288	3.373
Learn New Things	6.17	23	4.119	5.58	252	3.813	3.62	13	3.203	5.53	288	3.827
Experience Leisure Activities	9.13	23	3.958	8.92	252	3.996	10.85	13	4.318	9.03	288	4.013
Exercise Leadership	6.57	23	3.553	8.02	252	4.080	7.23	13	3.767	7.87	288	4.037
Special Abilities	6.57	23	4.630	7.92	252	3.918	8.15	13	3.805	7.82	288	3.977
Contribute to Important Decisions	6.87	23	3.888	8.77	252	3.670	8.54	13	2.602	8.60	288	3.673
Benefit Society	8.70	23	4.215	8.53	252	3.872	7.77	13	4.246	8.51	288	3.906
Freedom from Supervision	10.83	23	3.312	10.20	252	4.064	11.77	13	3.586	10.32	288	3.993
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	9.30	23	4.577	10.58	252	3.888	10.54	13	4.909	10.48	288	3.994
Friendly Congenial Associates	9.57	23	3.752	9.84	252	3.704	11.08	13	3.040	9.88	288	3.679
High Salary	6.91	23	4.870	6.03	252	4.416	5.69	13	2.810	6.09	288	4.389
High Prestige and Social Status	9.43	23	4.989	9.28	252	4.010	8.85	13	4.413	9.27	288	4.099
Opportunity for Advancement	7.04	23	3.843	6.48	252	3.660	6.62	13	3.501	6.53	288	3.659
Variety in Work Assignments	9.04	23	3.509	8.56	252	3.844	9.46	13	3.230	8.64	288	3.788
Working as Part of a Team	8.91	23	3.825	7.84	252	3.992	8.46	13	2.989	7.95	288	3.941

Table 40: Rank Order Comparisons of 15 Motivation Factors by Education

Motivation Factor	N-HS	HS	College
Stable and Secure Future	1	1	1
Learn New Things	2	2	2
Experience Leisure Activities	11	11	13
Exercise Leadership	3	7	5
Special Abilities	3	6	7
Contribute to Important Decisions	5	10	9
Benefit Society	8	8	6
Freedom from Supervision	15	14	15
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	12	15	12
Friendly Congenial Associates	14	13	14
High Salary	6	3	3
High Prestige and Social Status	13	12	10
Opportunity for Advancement	7	4	4
Variety in Work Assignments	10	9	11
Working as Part of a Team	9	5	8

Summary of Non-parametric Statistical Analyses

Since the sample was not 100 percent homogeneous, a statistical analysis was performed to investigate variations. Chi-square was used to test the relationship between the control variables race, gender and education, and the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program. Chi-square was also used to test independence among the control variables themselves. A significant chi-square test result indicates that the two variables are not independent and could possibly vary together. A value that is not significant indicates that the variables do not vary significantly from independence.

A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing the decision to stay or quit for men and women. No significant relationship was found (chi-square (3) = 16.56, $p < .05$). Nor was a significant relationship found between race and decision (chi-

square (3) = 2.434, $p > .05$). The same was true for education and the decision to stay or quit (chi-square (2) = .052, $p > .05$). Gender, race and education were independent of the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program. A chi-square test of independence was also calculated for gender. The relationship between gender and race was significant (chi-square (3) = 15.56, $p < .05$). However, the cell count for Hispanic females was less than 5, so the likelihood that the two vary together could be misleading. There was no significant relationship between gender and education (chi-square (2) = 4.534, $p > .05$). Lastly, a chi-square was calculated for race and education (chi-square (6) = 7.82, $p > .05$) which revealed no significant relationship.

The Spearman correlation coefficient determines the strength of the relationship between two variables. This non-parametric procedure is weaker than Pearson correlation, but does not require a normal distribution. The Spearman correlation functions on the basis of the ranks of data and requires ordinal data for both variables. The Spearman rho can range from -1 to 1. Scores close to 0 represent a weak relationship, while scores close to 1 or -1 represent a strong relationship. Generally, correlations greater than .7 are considered strong. Correlations less than .3 are considered weak, whereas correlations between .3 and .7 are considered moderate

A Spearman rho correlation was calculated for the relationships among the 15 motivation factors. In most cases, correlations did not exist among the variables. Where they did exist and were statistically significant, correlations were weak, with a few exceptions. The relationship between *High Salary and Contribute to Important Decisions* was slightly moderate, with a negative correlation ($r_s = -.380$, $p < .001$). There was also a moderate correlation between *Freedom from Pressure to Conform and Learn*

New Things ($r_s = .327, p < .001$). Lastly, a positive moderate correlation existed between *Freedom from Pressure to Conform and Freedom from Supervision* ($r_s = .335, p < .001$).

The Mann-Whitney U test is the non-parametric equivalent of the independent t test. It tests whether or not two independent samples are from the same distribution. The Mann-Whitney U test uses the rankings of the data and the data for the two samples must be at least ordinal, which makes this test appropriate for the current research. Unlike the independent samples t test, there are no assumptions about the shape of the distribution and a significant result would indicate that the samples are different. A Mann-Whitney U was first calculated for the stay and quit groups, and then for the males and females for comparison. In no case did a significant result emerge. The quit and stay groups were not significantly different in terms of motivation preferences, nor were the males and females.

The data were then weighted by race. In the case of one motivation factor, *Variety in Work Assignments*, the stay and quit groups demonstrated a statistical difference. Although both groups ranked this factor low ($m(\text{stay}) = 8.35; m(\text{quit}) = 9.88$), a difference was noted ($p = .008$). The correlation between the dependent variable decision and the motivation factor *Variety in Work Assignments* was extremely weak ($r_s = .129$). When the cases were weighted by gender, no statistical differences were found.

Motivation Preferences for the Entire Sample

The data in Table 41 presents the mean ranks of the 15 motivation variables while Table 42 depicts the rank order based on the mean scores. The sample as a whole placed high value on the following motivation factors: a chance to have a *Stable and Secure*

Future (m = 3.30), *Learn New Things* (m = 5.53), to earn a *High Salary* (m = 6.09), and have *Opportunity for Advancement* (6.53).

The group as a whole further ranked the following motivation factors low, indicating that they were of less importance to them: a chance to *Benefit Society* (m = 8.51), *Contribute to Important Decisions* (m = 8.60), *Variety in Work Assignments* (m = 8.64), *Experience Leisure Activities* (m = 9.03), to have *High Prestige and Social Status* (m = 9.27), *Friendly Congenial Associates* (m = 9.88), *Freedom from Supervision* (m = 10.32) and *Freedom from Pressure to Conform* (m = 10.48).

Table 41: Respondents Mean Scores of 15 Motivation Factors

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Stable and Secure Future	288	3.30	3.373	1	15
Learn New Things	288	5.53	3.827	1	15
Experience Leisure Activities	288	9.03	4.013	1	15
Exercise Leadership	288	7.87	4.037	1	15
Special Abilities	288	7.82	3.977	1	15
Contribute to Important Decisions	288	8.60	3.673	1	15
Benefit Society	288	8.51	3.906	1	15
Freedom from Supervision	288	10.32	3.993	1	15
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	288	10.48	3.994	1	15
Friendly Congenial Associates	288	9.88	3.679	1	15
High Salary	288	6.09	4.389	1	15
High Prestige and Social Status	288	9.27	4.099	1	15
Opportunity for Advancement	288	6.53	3.659	1	15
Variety in Work Assignments	288	8.64	3.788	1	18
Working as Part of a Team	288	7.95	3.941	1	15
Decision	288	.15	.354	0	1

If the means are then used to establish rank order importance, the high category, with values between 1 and 7 would include the following: *Stable and Secure Future (1); Learn New Things (2); High Salary (3); Opportunity for Advancement (4); Special Abilities (5); Exercise Leadership (6); and Working as Part of a Team (7)*. Motivation factors ranked low, with values between 8 and 17 would be comprised of *Benefit Society (8); Contribute to Important Decisions (9); Variety in Work Assignments (10); Experience Leisure Activities (11); High Prestige and Social Status (12); Friendly Congenial Associates (13); Freedom from Supervision (14); and Freedom from Pressure to Conform (15)*.

Table 42: Rank Order of 15 Motivation Factors of the Respondents According to Mean Ranks of Each

Motivation Factor	Entire Sample
Stable and Secure Future	1
Learn New Things	2
Experience Leisure Activities	11
Exercise Leadership	6
Special Abilities	5
Contribute to Important Decisions	9
Benefit Society	8
Freedom from Supervision	14
Freedom from Pressure to Conform	15
Friendly Congenial Associates	13
High Salary	3
High Prestige and Social Status	12
Opportunity for Advancement	4
Variety in Work Assignments	10
Working as Part of a Team	7

CHAPTER V

Findings, Discussion, Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to explore the potential influence of motivation on the decision of Navy recruits to stay in the Delayed Entry Program and proceed to basic training, and recruits who change their minds and quit prior to departing for basic training. The increased domestic and international demands for U.S. military manpower have garnered significant attention from the American public and politicians alike. The politics of U.S. involvement in the Global War on Terror, notwithstanding, few people will argue the need for fully staffed and capable military force. However, the prolonged involvement in Iraq and Afghanistan has strained the recruiting efforts of all military services. While the effects of the Global War on Terror are not addressed in the current study, it has considered another aspect of recruiting, and that is the motivation of individuals themselves. To date, research in public service motivation (Perry, 1996), has largely ignored the military as a public service organization. Additionally, research on motivation of public sector employees has typically included individuals who were already serving in the public sector. Perry (1996) introduced the concept that individuals may be predisposed to public service and contended that the desire itself might influence the motivation to serve. Wright (2001) offered that employment sectors are presumed to be different and the fact that individuals may be drawn to a particular sector of employment may be based on personal characteristics and desires. He also found, as was explored in this study, a bidirectional relationship between employee values and job choice.

This research was grounded in the growing body of literature on work motivation in the public sector. The problem that provided the rationale for the study was the fact that up to 25% of individuals who choose to join the Navy change their minds prior to departing for basic training. The overarching research question was: *Does motivation influence the decision of recruits to stay in the Navy Delayed Entry Program and proceed to basic training or to quit the program altogether.*

The data were analyzed using descriptive and relational statistical techniques. The analyses were made in order to discern patterns of motivation preferences among demographic lines and to determine if motivation factors influenced recruits' decisions to stay or quit the Navy Delayed Entry Program. Job characteristics theory (Hackman and Oldham, 1980) provided the foundation for the motivation factors captured in the survey used in this study. This theory contained motivation factors that some researchers have found to be important to individuals serving in either the public or private sector (Vroom, 1966; Hall, Schneider, and Nyguen, 1975; Kilpatrick, Cummings, and Jennings, 1964; Rainey, 1982; Solomon, 1986; Wittmer, 1991; Wright, 2001; Buelens and Van den Broeck, 2007). However, other studies have failed to confirm statistical differences in motivation of public and private sector employees (Gabris and Simo, 1985; Khojasteh, 1993; Posner and Schmidt, 1996; Mardani, 1991; Jurkiewicz, Massey and Brown, 1998; Newstrom, Reif, and Monczka, 1976).

The assumption in this research was that people who completed the Delayed Entry Program were likely to value those factors associated with public service, while the people who quit the program were likely to value factors typically associated with private sector preferences. It was expected that participants who gave high rankings to following

motivation factors would be more likely to stay in the Delayed Entry Program and proceed to basic training: *Stable And Secure Future, Learn New Things, Chance To Exercise Leadership, Contribute To Important Decisions, Benefit Society, Opportunity For Advancement, Variety In Work Assignments, and Working As Part Of A Team.*

These factors were purported to be motivators for public servants (Perry, 1996; Wright, 2001; and Jurkiewicz, Massey and Brown, 1998). With the exception of having a chance to *Benefit Society* and *Contribute to Important Decisions*, these factors were ranked high by recruits who stayed in the program. Interestingly, these same factors were also ranked high by recruits who quit the Delayed Entry Program.

Likewise, it was expected that individuals who gave high rankings to the following motivation factors would be more likely to quit the program: *Experience Leisure Activity, Special Abilities, Freedom From Supervision, Freedom From Pressure to Conform, Friendly and Congenial Associations, High Salary And High Prestige And Social Status* (Wright, 2001; Gabris and Simo, 1995 and Crewson, 1997). In fact, with the exception of *High Salary*, which was ranked high by both groups, these motivation factors were all ranked low for both the stay and the quit groups. The group displayed a homogeneous trend in that the motivation factors considered important were the same for both groups.

The current study was fruitful in that the research explored the goal of the study, which was to test the expectation of motivation differences between the groups. Results did not support the assumptions of this study that the Stay group would demonstrate the motivation preferences of public servants and the Quit group would demonstrate motivation preferences of private sector employees. In that vein, the study supported the

minority findings of Gabris and Simo (1985): that there is no difference in the motivation preferences of those who would choose public service and those who would choose private sector employment. By and large, the same was true when the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program was considered within gender, race and education. For Hispanics and high school dropouts in this study, the chance to *Learn New Things* influenced the decision to stay or quit. Hispanics and non-high school graduates who stayed in the program ranked this motivation factor high. Those Hispanics and high school dropouts who quit ranked this factor low.

Further, taken as a whole, the sample in this study revealed mixed results. The group as a whole supported 10 of the 15 main hypotheses regarding motivation influences. The whole group gave a high rank to the chance to have a *Stable and Secure Future*, which is consistent with public service motivation theory (Perry, 1996). They also placed high value on chance to *Learn New Things*, which supports research on motivation in the public sector. The third most important factor ranked by the entire group was the chance to earn a *High Salary*. This finding reflected the long standing debate in the literature about whether or not public and private sector groups valued high salaries (Kilpatrick, Cummings and Jennings, 1964; Schuster, 1974; Rainey, 1982; Wittmer, 1991; Jurkiewicz, Massey and Brown, 1998; Gabris and Simo, 1995 and Crewson, 1997). In this study, there was no difference in the importance each group placed on earning a good salary. In general, the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program could not be explained by preferences in motivation.

This study was informative in terms of the motivation preferences of various subgroups. Previous research indicates male-female differences in preferences regarding

job characteristics (Filer, 1989; Killingsworth, 1987; O'Neill, 1983; Sorensen, 1989).

Early research exploring this relationship found that females preferred friendly co-workers (Centers and Bugental, 1966), and supportive working relationships and flexibility in their work schedules. Men were more likely to value challenge in their jobs. More recent research supports these findings. Filer (1985) found that females had a greater preference than did men on the opportunity to perform public service, to help the community and to work with citizen groups. Men rated the desire to have a good job and to make a difference higher than the women. In addition, Killingsworth (1987) found that males place greater emphasis on earnings than do females. It was expected in the current study that women would place high value on the chance to *benefit society*, to *work as part of a team*, to have *friendly and congenial associates*, to *learn new things*, to *earn a high salary*, and a chance to *have a stable and secure future*. Additionally, since government is believed to be an equalizer in terms of pay and opportunity, it was also expected that women would value the chance to earn a *high salary* and to have *opportunity for advancement*. Men are thought to be more extrinsically motivated and thus, it was expected that they would place a high value on the chance to earn a *high salary*, to *contribute to important decisions*, *opportunity for advancement*, *high prestige and social status*, *exercise leadership*, and to have a *stable and secure future*.

In fact, males and females gave similar rankings to most motivation factors. They differed, however, on *Chance to Benefit Society* and *Working as Part of a Team*. Females ranked a chance to *Benefit Society* seventh of the 15 motivation factors, which is considered high. Males ranked it 10th (low) relative to other factors. On the other hand, males considered the chance to *Work as Part of a Team* more important than other

factors. Males ranked this motivation factor sixth of 15, which is high. Females ranked it eighth (low) of the 15 motivation factors. This finding ran counter to previous research regarding females in public service. It was shown that females care about benefiting society and believed it important to be a part of a team. Within genders, motivation factors thought to influence the decision to stay or quit the program did not have influence. Females who stayed and quit exhibited the same preference with regard to job characteristics generally shown to be appealing to women. Males who stayed did give high ranks to *Stable and Secure Future* ($m = 2.81$), *Opportunity for Advancement* ($m = 5.50$), and *High Salary* ($m = 5.22$). However, males who quit also gave high ranks to these motivators. The desire to have *High Prestige and Social Status*, *Exercise Leadership*, and *Contribute to Important Decisions* was not supported as factors important to the males in this sample.

In terms of race, all races placed equal relative value (high) on *Stable and Secure Future*, *Learn New Things*, *High Salary* and *Opportunity for Advancement*. Likewise, all races placed low relative value on *Contribute to Important Decisions*, *Freedom from Supervision*, *Freedom from Pressure to Conform* and *Friendly Congenial Associates*. In a study of the dilemmas of minority public administrators, Murray, Terry, Washington and Keller (1994) reported that minorities were primarily concerned with job security, which was supported in this study. While they cared about providing service to the communities from which they originate, they had sometimes competing interests of personal achievement and opportunity for professional growth. Murray, et al (1994) claimed that some minorities go out of their way to appear as team players, and because of a need for acceptance, they tend to conform to institutional and professional norms and

are less likely to resist orders. Minorities expect higher pay advantages to government jobs than comparably educated and experienced white men. In that government service offers more protection against discrimination and a better chance of equal opportunity for minority citizens, it was expected that minorities in this study would show preference for the chance to have a *Stable And Secure Future, to Learn New Things, Opportunity For Advancement, High Salary, Working As Part of a Team, And High Prestige and Social Status*.

Blacks considered the chance to *Experience Leisure Activities* a motivator whereas Caucasian, Hispanic and Asian respondents did not. Both Caucasian and Black respondents believed the chance to use *Special Abilities* was important, while Hispanic and Asian recruits ranked it low. On the chance to *Benefit Society* and have *Variety in Work Assignments*, Asian participants singularly gave them high value, while all others did not see the two motivation factors as important. *High Prestige and Social Status* was of high importance to Black and Hispanic recruits and of little value importance to Caucasian and Asian recruits. The chance to *Work as Part of a Team* was a motivator to Caucasian and Hispanic recruits, while Black and Asian participants saw it as less important.

Within racial categories, only Hispanics revealed the potential influence of the motivation factor, a chance to *Learn New Things*. In fact, Hispanics who stayed in the Delayed Entry Program ranked this factor high while those who quit ranked it low.

Education-wise non-high school graduates, high school graduates and those recruits with some college experience placed relatively high importance on *Stable and Secure Future, Learn New Things, Exercise Leadership, Special Abilities, High Salary,*

and *Opportunity for Advancement*. Each subgroup placed low importance on *Experience*, *Leisure Activities*, *Freedom from Supervision*, *Freedom from Pressure to Conform*, *Friendly and Congenial Associates*, *High Prestige and Social Status*, and *Variety in Work Assignments*. Non-high school graduates found a chance to *Contribute to Important Decisions* to be a motivator while high school graduates and recruits with college experience ranked this factor low. Those with college experience place higher relative importance on a chance to *Benefit Society* than the other two groups. *Working as Part of a Team* was more important to high school graduates than non-high school graduates and those with college experience. In terms of education, some researchers have argued that employees with more education rationalize the available alternatives for changing jobs or leaving employers (O'Reilly and Caldwell, 1981). However, other researchers have maintained that more educated employees have a greater number of job alternatives and thus are less likely to become stuck in any job or organization. As a result, they are less likely to develop great affections toward their jobs and organizations (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Educated employees often have higher expectations that jobs or organizations may not be able to meet. While today's government requires a highly educated workforce, recruits with more education may be less motivated to stay in the Delayed Entry Program than those recruits with less education. They may have more options. On the other hand, non-high school graduates have limited opportunities for employment. It is expected that they would value motivators such as a stable and secure future, high salary, high prestige and social status, chance to learn new things, to contribute to important decisions and opportunity for advancement.

Within the group of non-high school graduates, one motivation factor, a chance to *Learn New Things*, appeared to potentially influence the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program. Non-high school graduates who stayed in the program ranked this motivation factor high, while those who quit ranked it low. Non-high school graduates who quit ranked *Opportunity for Advancement* higher than the non-high school graduates who stayed in the program. This would indicate that they did not perceive the military as a place they could have advanced in terms of their careers.

Limitations

The goal of this research was to explore motivation for public service in the military context. The non-parametric nature of the study did not lend itself to generalizations. The study was observational and sought to describe the situation as it existed and place it in the context of empirical research on motivation within the public service. The sample used in the study was a convenience sample with no presupposed distribution or randomness. The current research did not address the historical threats of the ongoing wars in Afghanistan and Iraq, nor was there an attempt to include a political discussion or stance. Due to the homogeneous nature of the sample, the ability to draw contrasts between the stay group and quit group was severely limited. The study would have been better served by using random sampling and also by using a comparison group whose members had never made a commitment to military service. Future studies should refine the data collection process to include random sampling, which would allow for more rigorous statistical analyses and inference.

Future Research

Based on the findings in this research, it is recommended that as follow-on, a generalizeable research design based on a carefully selected random sample can be designed and implemented. The findings indicated that population sample was more homogeneous than expected. The fact that all Recruits in the sample had already made a decision to join the Navy may have resulted in a biased sample. The subsequent decision to quit can not be explained by differences in motivation. A feasible approach is to compare recruits in the Delayed Entry Program to individuals who are about to enter private sector employment. It is further recommended that future research include statistical analyses of group comparisons by race, gender, education, and perhaps by location of enlistment. The current research hinted that differences in motivation may exist among races and between genders. This study provides a benchmark for such investigations.

Considering that the current sample is largely homogeneous it is worth examining whether or not the motivation factors ranked high by the group are consistent with expected values of individuals who choose public service. This study did not seek to answer that question, but the relative importance placed on some motivation factors for the whole group would appear to support various hypotheses. The motivation factors hypothesized to be valued by public servants are *Stable and Secure Future*, *Learn New Things*, *Exercise Leadership*, *Contribute to Important Decisions*, *Benefit Society*, *Opportunity for Advancement*, *Variety in Work Assignments*, and *Working as Part of a Team*.

The ranking order by the entire sample indicated that, in fact *Stable and Secure Future, Learn New Things, Exercise Leadership, Opportunity for Advancement, and Working as Part of a Team* were highly valued by the respondents. However, *Contribute to Important Decisions, Benefit Society and Variety in Work Assignments* were not shown to be important motivation factors for this group of participants.

It was also expected that a chance to *Experience Leisure Activities*, to use *Special Abilities, Freedom from Supervision, Freedom from Pressure to Conform*, a chance to earn a *High Salary*, have *Friendly and Congenial Associates, High Prestige and Social Status* would not be considered motivators for individuals who choose public service. Rankings supported the expectation that public servants would place low importance on *Friendly and Congenial Associates, Freedom from Supervision, Freedom from Pressure to Conform*, and *High Prestige and Social Status*. However, *Special Abilities* and *High Salary* were ranked as important to the entire group of respondents. A formal investigation in the future to test these assumptions would be useful.

Policy Implications

The top personnel management priorities for Department of Defense officials are the recruiting, retention, motivation and training of people. The focal point of this attention transcends divisions of race and gender, concentrating instead on the hearts and minds of those willing to serve in the military. The current political, global and domestic demands placed on the military will be impossible to meet without adequate recruitment of personnel. The focus of this study has been the motivation of individuals who choose to serve. While, by and large, no differences were found in the motivation preferences between recruits who stayed in the Delayed Entry Program and proceeded to basic

training, and those who opted out of their contracts, some useful information has been gleaned in terms of what motivated the group as a whole. This creates the need for further investigation which could potentially have some policy implications that guide the Navy recruiting process and help decision makers.

It is also worth noting that different demographic groups may respond to different motivators. This study supported the notion that people seek what they do not have readily. For instance, Black and Hispanic recruits valued the chance to gain prestige and social status compared to other groups. This becomes important when recruiters are trying to identify issues that are important to potential recruits. The current study demonstrated that the Hispanics and Caucasians in this group care about being members of teams. This was not true for females, Blacks, or Asians as separate groups. Another investigative lead emerging from the current study was that the Asians and people with college experience in this sample were concerned about benefiting society. Additionally, people without high school diplomas seem to place value on being able to contribute to important decisions.

The potential policy implications for this research are significant in that it opens a door of discovery to an area that is largely unexplored. That is, public service motivation and military service. Whereas public organizations have answered the call of Robert Behn (1985) to conduct investigative analyses of employee motivation, the effort has not extended to the military, which is by all accounts, public service. The current study has hopefully created the need for further investigation along this line to be able to derive more definitive conclusions that can have significant policy implications.

Conclusion

This study has been an opportunity to explore the motivation of individuals who recently joined the U.S. Navy. It was an analysis of potential interactions between personal motivation and the decision to continue or quit the Delayed Entry Program. It also considered the effect of demographic variables such as race, gender, and education on the decision to proceed to basic training or quit.

The recruiting challenges for the U.S. military have been exacerbated by the increased domestic and global deployment demands placed on the men and women in the military. The effects of the Global War on Terror were not addressed in this study. Rather, it focused on another important aspect of military recruiting, personal motivation. The study was built on public service motivation theory and sector choice employment theory, exploring their applicability to the military setting, which can be seen as extreme public service. The findings from the data analyses did not provide support for the primary hypotheses that motivation factors would influence the decision to stay or quit the Delayed Entry Program. While the group as a whole ranked ten of 15 motivation factors in a manner that was consistent with public service motivation theory, the subgroups of people who stayed and people who quit failed to provide clear evidence of differences in motivation. This study may have contributed to the advancement of knowledge in that it may have spurred a new line of inquiry in this area. The findings suggest that a more representative sample of the population be considered for similar examination. Given the extreme and tenuous challenges of military recruiting, this topic is worthy of further investigation. That, itself, would constitute meaningful public service.

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APPENDIX A

JURKIEWICZ EMPLOYEE NEEDS SURVEY SURVEY OF JOB CHARACTERISTICS

This survey asks you about the relative importance of different characteristics which are relevant to your job. Please read through the following list of job characteristics. To the left of each goal, in the space provided, please rank their relative importance to you; 1 being the most important factor for you on the job, and 15 being the least important factor. It is easier if you first rank your top five choices: 1,2,3,4,5; then rank your bottom choices: 15, 14, 13,12,11. When you complete these rankings, complete the rankings of the remaining factors. No two factors can share the same ranking.

- _____ A. Chance to learn new things
- _____ B. Chance to benefit society
- _____ C. Freedom from pressures to conform both on and off the job
- _____ D. Opportunity for advancement
- _____ E. High prestige and social status
- _____ F. Chance to use my special abilities
- _____ G. Freedom from supervision
- _____ H. Variety in work assignments
- _____ I. Chance to engage in satisfying leisure activities (recreational, cultural, etc.)
- _____ J. Friendly and congenial associates
- _____ K. Working as part of a "team"
- _____ L. High salary
- _____ M. A stable and secure future
- _____ N. Chance to exercise leadership
- _____ O. Chance to make a contribution to important decisions

PLEASE CHECK TO MAKE SURE THAT YOU HAVE ASSIGNED A NUMBER RANKING TO EACH OF THE ABOVE FACTORS; ONLY ONE NUMBER RANKING PER FACTOR.

APPENDIX B

Data Code Book

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Code</u>
ID #	000 – 999
Decision (DSN)	0 = Stay 1 = Quit
Gender (GDR)	1 = Male 2 = Female
Race	1 = Caucasian 2 = African American 3 = Hispanic 4 = Asian
Location (LOC)	Actual (1, 2, 3) 1 = Urban 2 = Suburban 3 = Rural
Education (EDU)	Actual (1, 2, 3, 4) 1 = Non High School Grad 2 = High School Grad 3 = Some College or College Grad
Rating Program (RATE)	Actual (1 – 59) 1 = ABE – aviation boatswain 2 = AC – air traffic controller 3 = AD – aviation machinist 4 = AE – aviation electrician 5 = AG - aerographer 6 = AM – aviation structure mechanic 7 = AO – aviation ordnance 8 = AS – aviation support equip 9 = AT – aviation electronics tech 10 = AW - aviation warfare systems 11 = AZ – aviation maintenance admin 12 = PR – aircrew survival 13 = BU - builder 14 = CE - construction electrician 15 = CM – construction mech

16 = EA – engineering aide
17 = EO – equipment operator
18 = SW - steelworker
19 = UT - utilitiesman
20 = BM – boatswain’s mate
21 = CS – culinary specialist
22 = CT – cryptologic technician
23 = ET – electronics technician
24 = FC – fire controlman
25 = FT – fire control technician
26 = GM – gunner’s mate
27 = HM – hospital corpsman
28 = IS – intelligence specialist
29 = IT – information system technician
30 = LN - legalman
31 = MA – master at arms
32 = MC – mass communication specialist
33 = MN - mineman
34 = MT – missile technician
35 = MU - musician
36 = NC – Navy counselor
37 = ND – Navy diver
38 = OS - operations specialist
39 = PC – postal clerk
40 = PS - personnelman
41 = RP – religious program specialist
42 = QM - quartermaster
43 = SB – special warfare boat operator
44 = SH – ship’s serviceman
45 = SK - storekeeper
46 = SO – special warfare operator
47 = ST – sonar technician
48 = TM – torpedoman’s mate
49 = YN - Yeoman
50 = DC – damage controlman
51 = EM – electrician’s mate
52 = EN - engineerman
53 = EOD – explosive ordnance disposal
54 = GS – gas turbine systems technician
55 = HT – hull maintenance technician
56 = IC – interior comms electrician
57 = MM – machinist mate
58 = MR – machinery repairman
59 = SN/AN/FN – seaman/airman/fireman
60 = SECF – security force
61 = NF – nuclear field

62 = DT – dental technician
 63 = LI – lithographer
 64 = JO – journalist

Departure Month (MTH)	Actual (1 -12)
	1 = January
	2 = February
	3 = March
	4 = April
	5 = May
	6 = June
	7 = July
	8 = August
	9 = September
	10 = October
	11 = November
	12 = December

Stable and Secure Future (SSF)	Actual (1 – 15)
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Chance to Learn New Things (LNT)	Actual (1 - 15)
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Chance to Engage in Leisure Activities (ELA)	Actual (1 – 15)
---	-----------------

Chance to Exercise Leadership (EL)	Actual (1 – 15)
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Chance to Use Special Abilities (SA)	Actual (1 - 15)
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Chance to Contribute to Important Decisions (CID)	Actual (1 - 15)
--	-----------------

Chance to Benefit Society (BS)	Actual (1 -15)
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Freedom from Supervision (FFS)	Actual (1 - 15)
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Freedom from Pressure to Conform (FFPC)	Actual (1 – 15)
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Friendly and Congenial	Actual (1 – 15)
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Associates (FCA)

High Salary (HS)	Actual (1 – 15)
High Prestige and Social Status (HPSS)	Actual (1 – 15)
Opportunity for Advancement (OA)	Actual (1 – 15)
Variety in Work Assignment (VWA)	Actual (1 – 15)
Working as Part of A Team (WPT)	Actual (1 – 15)
Rank Preference (RNK)	Actual (1, 2)
	1 = High (1 – 7)
	2 = Low (8-15)

VITA
COMMANDER ANGELA W. CYRUS
UNITED STATES NAVY

Commander Cyrus earned her undergraduate degree in Computer Science from Mississippi State University in 1983. She received her commission in May 1984 after completing Officer Candidate School in Newport, Rhode Island. She holds a Master of Science degree in Information Management Systems from Naval Postgraduate School and a Ph.D. in Public Administration and Urban Policy from Old Dominion University. Commander Cyrus is a Fleet Support Officer and expert in Base Operations and Support. Her core competence is Logistics and Installation Management and her subspecialty is Information Systems.

Commander Cyrus began her career at Navy Regional Data Automation Center in Norfolk, Virginia where she served as Division Officer for Fleet Support Operations, providing SNAP-II data processing for fleet operating units. Her Department Head tour was in Keflavik, Iceland where she served as Director, Counseling and Assistance Center for the base.

In 1991, Commander Cyrus continued her leadership assignments at Naval Amphibious Base, Little Creek. There she served as Assistant Port Operations Officer and then assumed responsibility for all base Bachelor Quarters. Recognized for her innovations to enhance the quality of life for Fleet Sailors living in barracks, she was invited to head the newly established Bachelor Housing Programs Office at Naval Facilities Engineering Command, Atlantic Division.

From there, she was selected to lead the Community Relations Department in Public Affairs at U.S. Atlantic Fleet. Charged with marketing the Navy's story to engender public support, she brought national business leaders and government dignitaries face-to-face with the

operating Fleet and deck plate Sailors. In this capacity, she experienced the broad spectrum of Fleet capabilities. Her travel log includes six carrier landings; an underway period in a ballistic missile submarine, and arrivals to dock landing ships via Air Cushion Landing Crafts. Commander Cyrus was also selected for special detail to Secretary of Defense in support of the NATO Ministerial hosted by the United States in 1995.

Commander Cyrus was invited to join the personal staff of Commander in Chief, U.S. Atlantic Fleet, where she served as Flag Secretary. She then reported to Director, Shore Activities (CLF, N46) as Executive Assistant to a Senior Executive Service officer. Following this assignment, in October 1997, she reported to Naval Weapons Station, Yorktown, as the base Executive Officer, after which she joined the staff of Commander, Operational Test and Evaluation Force as Command Lead Analyst. She returned to Flag Officer Staff duty as Flag Secretary to President, Board of Inspection and Survey (INSURV). After screening for command, Commander Cyrus reported to Navy Recruiting District Philadelphia in March 2003, where she commanded a district whose footprint extended into five states and Washington DC. In December 2005, she reported to Foreign Policy Office, U.S. Joint Forces Command and NATO Allied Command for Transformation where she is currently serving in the Command Group as Executive Assistant to the sitting Ambassador.

Selected to the rank of Captain, she has earned the Meritorious Service Medal (3 awards), Joint Service Commendation Medal, Navy and Marine Corps Commendation Medal (3 awards) and the Navy and Marine Corps Achievement Medal (4 awards).